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ABSTRACT

This biannual journal presents articles, teaching ideas, and book reviews on a range of topics related to the teaching and learning of English as a second language and cross cultural communication issues, especially in regard to Japan and Japanese students. The nine articles address the following topics: (1) interview exercises based on the Community Language Learning approach, (2) a model for characterizing non-native varieties of English, (3) the feasibility of developing a Japanese English adapted to Japanese language and culture, (4) the use of folk tales to develop communicative competence, (5) the Total Physical Response approach, (6) teaching English for specific purposes, (7) a game for stimulating class discussion, (8) two reading or listening exercises, and (9) games for teaching English. (RW)

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A Journal of
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Volume IX, Number 2, Fall 1982

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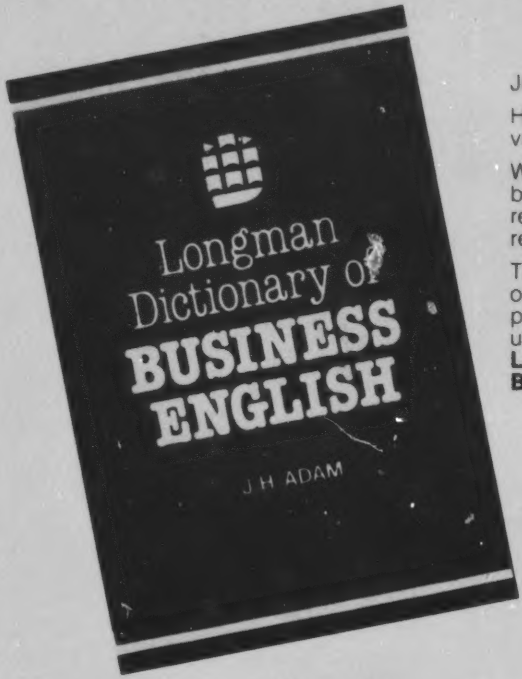

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ABOUT *CROSS CURRENTS*

Cross Currents is a biannual journal published by the Language Institute of Japan in an effort to contribute to an inter-disciplinary exchange of ideas within the areas of communication, language skills acquisition, and cross-cultural training and learning. We are interested in articles covering a wide range of concerns, including these specific areas: 1) Language teaching and learning, especially regarding English as a Foreign Language, 2) Language teaching and learning as they apply to the situation in Japan, and 3) Cross-cultural communication issues. We also welcome reviews of recently published books in these same areas.

Although a large proportion of our articles deal with Japan and Japanese students, we are also concerned with teaching methodologies, techniques, and general issues which are multicultural rather than culture-specific. While articles demonstrating solid and thoughtful research are greatly appreciated, always kept in mind is the necessity for readability and practicality for our readers, the classroom teachers. We make every effort to balance abstract and theoretical articles with articles directly applicable to the classroom. Short, practical articles are featured in our Bright Ideas section.

* * *

All articles submitted for consideration should be typed, double spaced, and in duplicate, with references placed in the body of the text in parentheses with the author's last name, date of the work cited and page number. Footnotes on substantive matters should appear at the bottom of the page on which the footnote occurs. Please include: 1) a paragraph precis of the article, 2) a short biographical sketch, and 3) a bibliography which should conform with *TESOL Quarterly* style. Manuscripts should be 5–20 pages in length. Authors of articles accepted for publication will receive twenty reprints.

Please direct all manuscript correspondence to:

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Language Institute of Japan
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Odawara, 250, Japan

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Summaries of the Articles

Interviewing with Community Language Learning

Paul La Forge

This article defines Charles Curran's Community Language Learning (CLL) and goes on to introduce a series of interpersonal exercises based on CLL. The Interview exercises described have been found by the author to be particularly effective in making Japanese patterns of personal interaction an advantage rather than a disadvantage in the ESL classroom.

Englishes and Their Sociocultural Contexts: Towards a Better Description of Non-Native Varieties of English

Prapart Brudhiprabha

Out of dissatisfaction with the description of English as if it were a single identifiable entity, this article advocates a plurality of Englishes with special reference to non-native varieties. A model for the description is proposed in terms of accent, dialect, register, and style. Examples of speech and writing are analyzed and discussed in their sociocultural contexts. Some practical implications for the teaching of English as an International and Intranational Language (EIIL) are hinted at. Without apologies, a locally-developed variety of educated English can be used as an instructional model.

An Elitist or a Japanized English?

Lewis Smith

This is a dialogue about the feasibility of a Japanese English, that is, an English adapted to the Japanese language and culture. The topic was suggested by the controversy in *The Japan Times* several years ago over the proposals of Professor Takeo Suzuki of Keio University for a "Japanized" English. One speaker argues that since much of the English of the native speaker is derived from the distinctive culture of his country, it should not be forced upon others. The other argues that implementing Suzuki's ideas would result in an English unintelligible to others.

Folktales: A Context for Developing Communicative Competence

Sandra McKay

Canale and Swain (1980) have delineated four components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. This article illustrates how folktales can be used to provide an effective context for developing skills in all four areas.

Total Physical Response is More Than Commands—At All Levels

Contee Seely

Total Physical Response is usually considered to be only the use and performance of commands at the beginning level of language learning. The author discusses many reasons why TPR is effective and why it is useful at all levels. In the final section, he gives numerous examples of four different types of TPR exercises, including action dialogues and non-command TPR exercises.

Teaching Content and Teaching English for Specific Purposes

Harvey M. Taylor

This article examines problems in the rapidly growing field of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). It offers a definition of ESP and considers the distinction between content and language courses in the ESP curriculum. The author goes on to suggest ways in which content courses can be modified or integrated with language courses to meet the needs of ESP students.

Modern Language Association

Joan Lindgren

Last May, Earl Stevick began his keynote speech to CATESOL with poetry and urged ESL teachers to pursue right-brain learning strategies. This poem is intended to provide nourishment and insight for the right brains of ESL teachers and perhaps a moment of pause to take pleasure in our work.

Bright Ideas

A Thirty-Clue Mystery—The Barlow Case: A Method for Semi-Free Discussion

Michael J. Kleindl

The author describes a mystery-solving game which stimulates a lively student discussion with minimal teacher involvement. The article explains the exercise procedure, offers suggestions for writing short mysteries, and provides a sample mystery for intermediate students.

Two Reading or Listening Exercises

S. Kathleen Kitao

This Bright Idea describes two types of exercises that are not well known but that might be useful to teachers in supplementing exercises for listening or reading passages. One is the chart exercise, in which the teacher makes a chart for the students to fill in, based on the material in the passage. The other is a visualization exercise, in which the teacher asks the students to draw something that is being described in the passage.

ABOUT THIS ISSUE

The number and quality of manuscripts crossing our desk have increased conspicuously over the last few years. While this is a happy situation for us, it makes us reflect more on the merits of each paper and provokes some spirited and soul-searching discussions on the part of the Editorial Board. It also puts more pressure on authors who must endure longer delays on decisions and publication, and more frequently suffer the disappointment of rejection. We would like to thank all who have submitted articles for their hard work, revisions, and patience.

Cross Currents has a commitment to serve ESL/EFL teachers all over the world. For this reason, our articles tend to reflect personal and subjective views of English teaching, since teaching is so often a matter of attitude and insight rather than the application of rules or research. At the same time, we try to provide classroom teachers with practical suggestions, ideas, and lessons which they can immediately apply in their classrooms. Many of the articles which appear in our journal have been revised, and in some cases totally rewritten, to make their insights or findings directly applicable to the classroom teacher. We at *Cross Currents* feel that it is this extra effort on the part of our authors which gives the journal its special character.

The contributors to this issue are all active in the ESL/EFL field, both as writers and, more importantly, as teachers. In every case, the articles come out of their personal experiences, grappling with significant problems in the language teaching field. Rather than definitive research results or solutions to teaching problems, these articles are more like progress reports. Paul La Forge's article, "Interviewing with Community Language Learning," examines not only the strong points of CLL but also the problems associated with this approach. Based on his experience in the classroom, La Forge presents a series of Interview exercises which he feels can help teachers apply CLL techniques to their own classes. Similarly, Contee Seely shares with us his personal applications of TPR methodology in his article, "Total Physical Response Is More Than Commands–At All Levels." Seely provides examples of TPR exercises which he has found to be suitable for teaching a wide variety of structures to students at all levels. Harvey Taylor's analysis of ESP in "Teaching Content and Teaching English for

Specific Purposes" also reflects a wealth of personal in-class experience. Taylor considers the advantages and disadvantages of various ways of structuring ESP programs, especially concerning the balance between *language*. and *content* courses. Sandra McKay's "Folktales: A Context for Developing Communicative Competence," while less broad in scope, suggests a wide range of applications to practicing ESL teachers. She shows through examples why she believes folktales are especially suitable for teaching communication skills in the ESL classroom.

In a less traditional but no less serious format, Joan Lindgren's poem "Modern Language Association" explores the sights, sounds, and most importantly the feelings of an ESL class in action, appealing not only to the logical facilities of our left brain hemispheres but also to our right-brain intuitions. This poem makes a nice complement to Seely's article in that it too shows the possibility of "whole body" learning.

Two other articles offer insights into the difficult and timely question of varieties of English: Should only Standard English be taught in the ESL classroom? Does such a Standard English even exist? These questions have far-reaching implications for ESL teachers and for the overall future of the ESL profession. Thai scholar Prapart Brudhiprabha makes an argument for the existence of a plurality of Englishes, each reflecting the language of the educated speakers in a given country. To a certain extent, the article itself represents a non-Western variety of English and in this way exemplifies its thesis. We recognize Dr. Brudhiprabha's argument (and style of argument) will generate controversy, and this had a lot to do with our decision to print the article, as Robert Ruud points out in his note below. Approaching the topic from both sides at once, Lewis Smith offers a dialogue arguing the pros and cons of the acceptance of a Japanized form of English. Needless to say, the pedagogical, cultural, and political controversies generated by this issue are important to everyone concerned with the problems of international communication.

In the Bright Ideas section, Michael Kleindl describes how mystery-solving exercises can guide students through an energetic yet focused discussion with little teacher intervention. S. Kathleen Kitao explains how time chart and picture exercises can be used to enhance reading and listening instruction.

The issue also includes a review of Earl Stevick's new book, *Teaching and Learning Languages*, and an introduction to a pair of gamebooks which are highly recommended as a source of classroom exercises.

Beginning with this issue, *Cross Currents* is adopting the *TESOL Quarterly* style for references in an effort to be more consistent with other publications in the field. We would appreciate it if all submitted manuscripts would follow this format.

We expect to make a *Cross Currents* index available to subscribers soon. It will list articles by author, title, issue, and subject.

Our spring issue will feature an article on TOEIC and in-company training in Japan by Yukio Saegusa and a discussion of methods for teaching reading by Harvey Taylor. The deadline for the receipt of manuscripts for that issue is April 1.

Finally, if you have any thoughts about the articles or issues presented in our journal, please write to us. Although at this time we do not have space to print letters, your ideas would be appreciated by the Board.

Cross Currents
Thomas Walter Smith
Andrew Blasky
Lori B. Brooks

Editorial Note

In looking back over our work on Prapart Brudhiprabha's "Non-Native Varieties of English," it seems that the process the Editorial Board went through in coming to terms with this paper is not unlike that which others who are concerned with international communication go through in learning to accept quality on a standard different from the one on which their professional training was based. First opinions on this article ranged from discomfort to grudging acceptance. But the more we examined and thought about the article, the more it made sense, and the clearer it became that the style was not defective; in fact the paper, which was representative of one of the Englishes it was sensibly justifying, was being evaluated in terms of another English, one whose standard of excellence was assumed to represent a universal best way. An international publication such as *Cross Currents* can no longer afford to judge quality on the American or British standard alone. The standard must accomodate the apologies, the obligatory self-effacement, the nonlinear style which will naturally occur in the writing of Asian scholars from whom we are soliciting articles, but which are unacceptable in British or American writing. At the same time, we must seek to preserve the qualities which *Cross Currents* readers really look for in our articles: practical suggestions and theoretical insights with practical implications. It is our hope that as our readership in Asia grows, the number of contributions from Asian teachers will grow with it.

Robert Ruud
Editorial Board

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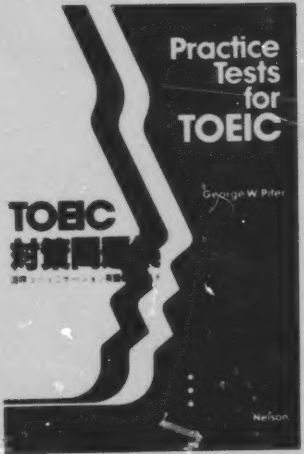

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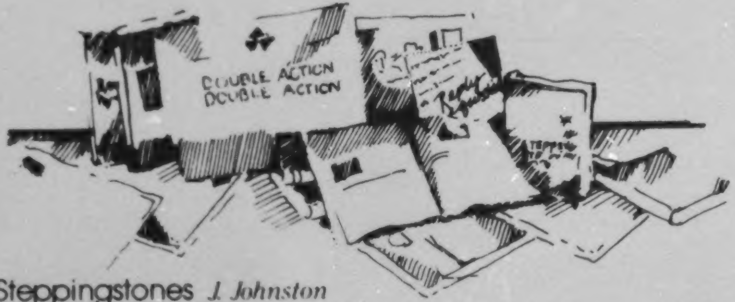

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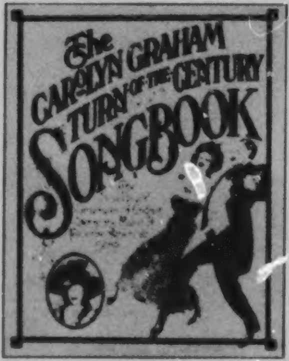
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Fall 1982

Interviewing with Community Language Learning

Paul G. La Forge

This article has two purposes. The first is to define Community Language Learning (CLL) as developed by the late Charles A. Curran (1972, 1976, 1978). The second purpose is to introduce a series of interpersonal exercises as solutions to problems commonly encountered by teachers of English conversational skills. The whole series can be implemented or each exercise can be used independently. The approach need not be CLL. In the Japanese case with CLL, the Interview takes on interpersonal functions and characteristics which appear in Japanese society at large. These will be described in part two.

Part I: A Definition of CLL

CLL is not a panacea for the solution of language learning problems. In fact, each element of CLL contains a problem which calls for the creative judgment of the CLL teacher. The following is a definition of CLL: *CLL is a supportive language learning contract which consists of group experience and group reflection.* There are five important elements to this definition: first, CLL is *group experience;* second, CLL is a *supportive contract;* third, CLL is *group reflection;* fourth, CLL is a *learning contract;* fifth, CLL is *language learning.*

Rev. La Forge, a Divine Word Missionary, holds Master's degrees in Clinical Psychology from Loyola Univ. of Chicago and in TESL from the Univ. of Michigan. He is currently a Professor in the Dept. of Human Relations at Nanzan Junior College in Nagoya.

This article was originally presented as an address to the Nagoya Branch of the Language Laboratory Association of Japan on August 23, 1981 at Nanzan Junior College.

CLL is group experience

According to Curran (1972: 12), students do not learn alone or in competition, but together with others in supportive groups. The CLL class uses three basic interpersonal configurations: the entire class group or larger units of ten to fifteen students, small groups of five or six students, and pair or triad groups. Each of these class configurations takes on the nature of a short-term counseling session (Curran, 1972: 5). In short-term counseling as applied to English teaching/learning, the teacher explains the purpose of activities, sets the time limits, and awaits the reactions of the students before proceeding further. Each configuration has its own advantages and disadvantages. In large classes, the participation of the teacher often generates so much anxiety that the students never really function adequately in the foreign language. But the presence of the teacher is necessary for learning to occur. The small group configuration provides a more relaxed learning environment, especially when the teacher does not participate. However, students are apt to relax to such an extent that they use their native language in place of the foreign language. Pair and triad groups give the individual a chance to broaden relationships inside the class, but the intensive experience of speaking the foreign language can become physically fatiguing. In order to face all these problems squarely, the CLL teacher has to use all three group configurations in a flexible, but not permissive way.

CLL is supportive learning

In contrast to "teacher-centered" forms of language learning based on textbooks and lengthy grammatical explanations by the teacher, CLL is "student-centered." This means that the teacher maintains silence in the group and allows the learning to be shared by the students themselves. Students, however, find great difficulty in functioning without some kind of well-defined social structure and purpose. The lact of structure implied by the terms "student-centered" and "short-term counseling" may be excuses for lack of action by the teacher in presenting supportive structure for the students. The social structure of the Interview greatly eases this difficulty.

CLL is group reflection

A reflection period follows each CLL group experience. The CLL reflection period, if properly employed, can become an effective force for learning. It consists of two parts: a period of silent evaluation by each participant and a period of sharing or reporting. During the silent period, a short report about the learning experience is prepared in writing. These reports are then shared with the whole group. The problem here is boredom. Some variety must be introduced into this format; otherwise, the students will become as bored with reflection as with any other repetitious exercise.

CLL is a learning contract

A contract, as described by Beck (1974: 437), is a mutual agreement to participate in a process with a particular set of people. The initial task of a CLL group is to become more than a collection of individuals, to become, indeed, a community. A community is a group which has matured by forming a mutual agreement to work together toward a goal (for example, the mastery of a foreign language). Evaluation of goals through reflection is part of the interpersonal process. The problem here is lack of focus on the skills necessary for speaking in the foreign language. The contracts have to contain a definition clear enough so that the content goals can be readily grasped by the students.

CLL is language learning

According to Curran (1972: 130–135), the learner grows into the new language like a living person. There is birth and childhood (Stages I and II), adolescence (Stages III and IV), and finally adulthood (Stage V). The problem facing the teacher arises from individual differences among the students. Some students may show evidence of ability at Stages I or II. Others may be more advanced at Stages IV and V. Such differences occur frequently among Japanese junior college students. Female students (age 19–20) who have traveled to the United States or who have developed speaking ability through hard work and superior motivation are thrown into the same class with students without the experience of travel abroad or with those who have less intense motivation.

These individual differences can be bridged through a series of exercises called *group life*. Group life consists of a flow of fairly predictable events which involve the individual in the learning process. Beck (1974: 423) has written as follows:

> This view combines objectively analyzed or observable phenomena with subjectively perceived or experimental phenomena in group process. It sees man as a self-organizing system that values, feeds on, and creates order. It sees man and group as open systems in interaction with their environs, actively involved in organizing their experience and their realities with respect to their goals. This organization is seen as evolving in an orderly process at both individual and group levels.

The group level in CLL is the orderly development of the community from a variety of group experiences. This development occurs largely through reflection by both students and teacher. The students compare their gains and losses during a series of group learning experiences with the whole class, in small groups, and in pairs. The teacher reflects on the feedback data given by the students during the reflection period. The teacher then considers the suitability of subsequent exercises with particular concern for the timing involved. CLL group life reflects the five stages of individual and community development.

The following discussion uses the community as the focus. The community is formed in Stage I, the Embryonic Stage, through the establishment of the contract. Its identity and direction toward the skills necessary for communication are established in Stage II, the Self-Assertion Stage. Intimacy, friendship, and mutual trust are initiated during Stage III, the Separate Existence Stage. In Stage III, the learners experience a strong drive to use the foreign language independently. This drive is an outgrowth of the earlier struggle to achieve self-confidence and self-expression. During Stage III, learners begin to resist the assistance of the teacher who grows hesitant to provide further information or correct errors in anticipation of further resistance. An adolescent crisis frequently occurs at the end of Stage III when the definitions made by the group tend to exclude the teacher. But if students hope to progress beyond the semigrammatical level, they still need the teacher's knowledge and skill. This crisis is resolved by a redefinition of the roles of all the participants, both the teacher and the students.

There are two ways of coping with this crisis. One is to allow the students the freedom to operate on their own. They soon realize that they must have the teacher's help. On one such occasion the students criticized the teacher for failing to correct their errors. As a result, it became possible for the teacher to participate again by correcting without interrupting the flow of the group conversation. A second way of dealing with the conflict is to reinforce the students' drive for independence by giving them more responsibility. In most English classes, the teacher asks the questions and the students give the answers. At Stage IV, the Reversal Stage, these roles were reversed, thus challenging the students to employ all the communication skills at their disposal. This role reversal has been discussed at length by Curran (1978: 82-83).

As the students advance into Stage V, the Adult Stage, they begin to assume tasks under the teacher's direction which previously only the teacher could perform. If the teacher employs the Interview at each CLL stage, the group life will of itself contribute to significant individual development. The effects remain with the person even in his or her independent functioning outside the foreign language learning context.

Part II: Interviewing with CLL

The purpose of part two is to offer some solutions to the problems outlined above. I have used a series of structured interviews with female junior college students at Nanzan Junior College. The classes, required by the curriculum, met twice a week for ninety minutes per class. These interview exercises can be used with foreign languages other than English at intermediate and advanced levels of ability. Since each interview can also be used separately, they may be used as a change of pace when the students become bored with a textbook. With proper attention to group life, the combination of exercises can be put together by any teacher to provide for the personal development of the individual while English speaking ability is being acquired.

An understanding of the interpersonal function of the Interview in Japanese society will further clarify what is meant by group life. The Interview is a highly flexible interpersonal phenomenon which is employed when a crisis arises during the life of a Japanese group. The public life of the group is interrupted for a time. A series of private meetings in pairs or small groups is held between the leaders and among the different factions of the same group. These meetings take on the interpersonal configuration of an informal interview. They are held in a flexible way in pairs, small groups, and in larger meetings of representatives from differing factions. The timing of these small meetings or interviews is considered very sensitive; otherwise the highly charged emotional atmosphere might lead to a permanent rupture of the group unity. The purpose of the small meetings is to dispel unfounded rumors and suspicions, to promote mutual understanding, and to redefine the roles of all the leaders and participants. When the confidence of the members has risen to the point where a fresh and unanimous consensus is possible, the public life of the group is reconvened with ceremony and celebration.

During the Interview, a number of listening, observing, and questioning skills are employed in order to promote mutual understanding. These same skills, if applied within the group life of a foreign language class, can be a very powerful force for individual learning. With a proper understanding and use of the Interview as it functions in Japanese culture, the following five exercises greatly contribute to learning: "The Johari Window," "An Introduction to Creative Communication," "An Interview with You," "An Interview with the Teacher," and "A Personal Interview." Another short reading entitled "The Distinction Between Content and Process" can be introduced at any time according to the teacher's discretion. The Interview enhances learning through the approximation and application of Japanese patterns of interaction at each CLL stage.

The Interview at Stage I

Stage I is the Birth Stage. Japanese students at this stage are hardly capable of producing any kind of English sentence. They have been trained to memorize lists of vocabulary and to translate from English into Japanese and vice versa. They have no experience in using English as a vehicle of interpersonal communication. Since Japanese do not normally communicate in English among themselves, the first task of the teacher is to establish the life of the group through communication among the students themselves. The group contract can be initiated through self-introduction in small groups. Each person presents his or her self-history, general interests, and specific purpose for joining the group. Recording the conversations will help keep the group's attention focused on learning English. The individual becomes identified as a member of the community through self-introduction. The students' discovery of their identify as English speakers contributes greatly to the reduction of anxiety.

After self-introduction, the permissiveness connected with small group activities can be avoided by reconvening the whole group. The "Johari Window" is introduced by way of reflection on the small group self-introduction. An overhead projector can be used to present the explanation to the class, thus reducing some of the physical fatigue connected with language learning. The Johari Window serves to introduce the student to his "English Speaking Self" (cf. Curran, 1972: 130). "Johari" is an abbreviation of Joseph Luft and Harry Ingram (1963: 10–15), who first described a "windowlike" model for communication based on self-understanding. There are four sections in the window: The Arena, the Blind Spot, the Facade, and the Mystery. The section open to the self and the other, the public area, is called "the Arena." The second section, closed to the self but open to the other, is called "the Blind Spot." The third part, open to the self but closed to the other, is called "the Facade." The fourth part is called "the Mystery" because it is closed to the self and the other. Each person possesses all four areas, each influences communication. The walls between each section of the window are permeable and change with each communication situation. Information moves across the boundaries from the Mystery to the Facade where a person can choose whether it will come into the Arena by sharing it with another. Information can also pass from the Mystery into the Blind Spot. When others reveal this information, the individual concerned may be shocked. Cultural shock may be treated in this connection. If the mystery of self is faced with courage, then communication relationships can be established with others in the Arena. Insights into the mystery of self can be gained through communicating with others.

After the explanation, students can be asked to construct a Johari Window in relation to their small groups. Covert issues in the class which may be causing anxiety can then be discussed openly. The life of the group is firmly established on growth in self-understanding through communicating with others. The class itself becomes an arena for the open discussion and solution of all the problems which may arise in the course of the life of the group.

The Interview at Stage II

Stage II is the Childhood Stage. In this stage, the individual begins to express meanings and initiate exchanges with others. Two exercises together called "An Introduction to Creative Communication" serve to focus the direction and identity of the group upon the basic skills required for foreign language communication. These exercises also define a clear social structure in which students can practice communication with each other.

The first exercise is called "Rogerian Listening" (Simon et al., 1972: 295-298). The class is divided into triads. One person presents a topic, problem, or theme. The second person must repeat both the content of the message and the feeling behind the words before giving a reaction or opinion. The third person is the timekeeper and observer. The interaction is timed to last ten minutes. Then the roles are exchanged until each person has had a chance to perform all three roles.

Reflection on the exercise revealed some interesting points. First, the pace of the communication was slowed down considerably. Consequently, the individuals had time to consider the message before attempting a reply. The result was an improvement in the grammatical quality of the reaction. Students of intermediate ability had time to make grammatical adjustments in their English. Second, the exercise caused a great amount of physical fatigue. The students realized that listening is an active faculty that consumed much energy. At the same time, students of basic ability improved their performance as a result of increased listening concentration. Third, the experience of observing the interaction of two persons helped the observer to understand that the difficulty of mastering a foreign language is the struggle towards mutual understanding. In the highly charged affective atmosphere, grammatical forms and meanings communicated in an exact way were less easily forgotten. Advanced students began to correct each others' grammar in a highly unobtrusive manner. When the observer was an advanced learner, knowledge of the foreign language was also communicated to a less advanced participant. Individual differences in ability were abridged during the performance of Rogerian Listening. Fourth, Rogerian Listening was not a completely satisfying experience for two reasons. First, the slow pace of the communication was unnatural and even frustrating. Second, listening is only a single skill; other skills, such as making statements, asking questions, and answering, are also essential to communication.

Therefore, a second exercise called "Asking, Answering, and Observing" was introduced. One person (A) presents a problem or topic of conversation. Then the second person in the group (B) asks supportive questions in order to help A develop his theme. Supportive questions are introduced by "Who," "What," "Where," "When," "Why," and "How." Questions which can be answered with "Yes" or "No" do not help the individual, but serve merely to satisfy the curiosity of the listener. Supportive questions help develop the communication. The observer (C) keeps the time and takes notes on significant phases of the interaction. After ten minutes, the roles are exchanged so that each participant receives a chance to perform in all three roles: asking, answering, and observing.

In order to avoid boredom, the reflection period was structured around a checklist. The performance of person B (the questioner) was evaluated by A (the person answering) and vice versa. The observer (C) evaluated the interaction between both A and B. The checklist for A contained the following questions about B's conduct: Could you speak freely? Were the questions easy to understand? Could you really reveal your thoughts? Checklist B about A's conduct contained the following questions: Were you anxious during the session? Did A really open up to your questions? Did you understand A's answers or attempt to clarify them? Checklist C, about the conduct of both A and B, contained the following questions: Were both A and B relaxed in the relationship? Were the questions and answers mutually supportive? Did mutual trust exist? What about the gestures, the tone of voice, and the mannerisms of both A and B? As a result of these two exercises, the understanding of self and the other, the meaning of the Johari Window, was greatly deepened. At the same time, the direction and identity of the group were firmly focused on the acquisition of the foreign language.

The Interview at Stage III

At Stage III, the Separate Existence Stage, the learner begins to function in an independent way in the foreign language. The strong urge to individual performance can be greatly enhanced by a pair-group exercise called "An Interview With You." This interview was patterned after an exercise from *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Classroom* by Gertrude Moskowitz (1978: 54–55). This interview is a guided conversation. A series of open-ended statements and questions are printed on a single page of a small booklet. Rogerian Listening is also reintroduced during the conversations.

The participants are led through the exercise to explore mutual goals and values in learning. The individuals are allowed a certain amount of freedom in deciding their own progress through the program. At Nanzan, the students were given the choice of performing the interview inside or outside the classroom. Permissiveness was avoided by asking the students to note down the percentage of foreign language they intended to use before the exercise began.

By way of reflection, the students were asked to compare the percentage of English they actually used with the percentage promised before the exercise. The nonjudgmental way in which the teacher allowed the students to evaluate their own progress resulted in a strong wish to repeat the exercise with a different partner. When this occurred, I agreed on the condition that the students would prepare a set of questions or open-ended statements to be asked of the teacher. This condition set the stage for the re-entry of the teacher into the community. Small group exercises give the students the chance to use the basic English they have acquired. But contact with the teacher is also necessary if the students hope to progress to more advanced levels of ability.

The Interview at Stage IV

Stage IV is the Reversal Stage. In the first three CLL stages the teacher has functioned in a role of understanding the students. At Stage IV, the roles of the teacher and participants are redefined in order for advanced learning to occur through an exercise called "An Interview With the Teacher." At Stage IV the teacher adopts the role of interviewee or client. The whole class becomes the interviewer or counselor. The questions from the previous exercise are collected and put in order according to life history. The students are allowed to ask about the childhood, adolescence, and university life of the teacher. Repetitive questions are discarded and the students compose new ones where gaps exist. I gathered a series of fifty-two questions from the students. Employing all the skills which they had learned in creative communication, each student was allowed to ask two questions of the teacher. In order to enhance the experience, I brought pictures of my early life and student days for the students to examine.

The Interview at Stage V

Stage V is the Adult Stage. After a forty-five minute interview with the teacher as interviewee, the roles were reversed again. The students were assigned the task of conducting interviews among themselves. The exercise, patterned after Hopper and Whitehead (1979: 223-352), was called "A Personal Interview." The first purpose of the interview was to provide a chance for the participants to develop English speaking fluency. The second purpose was to help the interviewee establish better self-understanding by a review of past life history and future goals. The exercise consisted of three parts: preparing, conducting, and evaluating the interview. By way of preparation, each group of five students composed a single set of open-ended statements and questions covering the life history of a student from childhood, through junior and senior high school, and into junior college. Future hopes and goals were also included. In conducting the ten-minute interview, one student acted as interviewer, one student became the interviewee; one was the timekeeper; and the other two were the observers. The interview was followed by a brief evaluation session structured in the following way: the interviewee gave her opinion about the interview; the observers and the timekeeper then gave their observations. After listening to all these opinions in silence, the interviewer was allowed to speak and explain her conduct. Following a brief interval of personal reflection, the roles were changed and the interview was repeated with the same set of questions.

Since the students expressed confusion regarding the purpose of the interviews, a short reading called "The Distinction Between Content and Process" was introduced to clarify the content and interpersonal aspects of the learning situation. This reading helped students to distinguish the task (learning to speak English fluently) from the process (the development of mutual and self-understanding). The students began to understand the distinction when the exercise was repeated a second time, deviating from the previous set of questions if necessary. The effects of the interview were felt both inside and outside the classroom. Inside the classroom, the focus of the foreign language learning was on the personal welfare and development of each participant. Outside the school, students began to apply the distinction to job interviews which were crucial in determining future careers after graduation. They reported afterward that they were more relaxed during these job interviews.

Part III: Summary

The result of using Interviews with CLL was "whole-person" learning. The individual was fully involved at each CLL stage. At Stage I, the Johari Window produced a sense of something valuable which extended beyond the scope of foreign language learning into the daily life of the learner. Understanding of self and others was deepened during Stage II by the cultivation of listening, asking, answering, and observing skills. Whole-person learning penetrated deeply into the consciousness of the individual. Therefore, it was an easy task for the learner to transfer and apply these skills to life outside the classroom. At Stage III, those skills were applied in a very intensive way in an interview with just one other person. This interview was instrumental in establishing English-speaking relationships among the Japanese students themselves. One of the biggest needs in the English education field today is for the Japanese to establish communication relationships in English among themselves. There are signs that this is beginning to occur during meetings of English teachers when non-native speakers are present. However, the real need is to see English being used as a medium for the increase of mutual understanding not only between Japanese and foreigners, but also among Japanese themselves.

During the exercises for Stages II and III, the pauses for individual reflection served to relieve the physical fatigue connected with speaking a foreign language for a protracted period of time. At Stage IV, the students were strongly impressed by the conduct of the teacher. They realized that they were dealing with a fellow human being with a life history similar in some respects to their own. For a teacher to appear human is, apparently, an extraordinary phenomenon in Japanese education. Consequently, when the roles were reversed at Stage V, the teacher became a more powerful model for the conduct of the students. Without any suggestion or assignment, the students brought all their personal pictures on the day appointed for conducting the interviews. This happened in such a completely spontaneous way that class order was interrupted for a time. After an exchange of pictures, the students settled down and adopted their roles in a serious manner.

I have selected and described these exercises in such a way that any teacher can rewrite and adapt them according to the needs of his or her students. Students have different needs at all stages of development. It is the teacher's judgment which structures the learning context. The timing of the exercises is crucial to the progress of the group and the individual, and a skillful monitoring of the atmosphere of the class is necessary at all times. There are no magical formulas for success at teaching a foreign language. The teacher has the ultimate responsibility for deciding the best way to use these exercises.

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Englishes and Their Sociocultural Contexts: Towards a Better Description of Non-Native Varieties of English

Prapart Brudhiprabha

I would like to stress at the outset that I have no novel contribution to make in this paper. What I am going to say has been said before, and better. In fact, I would prefer not to take up your time at all, but rather to simply recommend that everyone go home and read three articles by Peter Strevens: "Varieties of English" (1965), "Varieties of English: The Description of Diversity" (1977: 119-128), and "Varieties of English: A TEFL Approach" (1977: 129-146), as well as another article by Christopher Brumfit: "The English Language, Ideology and International Communication: Some Issues Arising Out of English Teaching for Chinese Students" (1980). I wish to acknowledge my indebtedness to these two British scholars from whose papers I have gained most of my ideas.

A Plurality of Englishes

For decades, even centuries, the TESOL profession has been trying to teach "Standard English" without giving due consideration to its non-native varieties. In other words, only a native variety of English–either Standard American or Standard British–is generally taught!

For some years now English has been widely accepted as an inter/intranational language. Such varieties as Black English, Indian English, Singaporean English, or even Thai English have emerged, and have been more or less recognized. The question now is: Should

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we still insist that only a native variety of English ought to be taught?

I would argue very strongly against this view of the issue. This paper therefore stems from dissatisfaction with the description and the teaching of English as if it were a single, self-contained, and well-defined entity—without recognizing its rich varieties. To my mind, a monolithic approach to such an inter/intranational language as English is somewhat unjustified. I submit that the sooner the profession discards this approach the better; and that instead an approach which may be called "a plurality of Englishes" be seriously considered.

The evolution of local varieties of English overseas—for which no adequate framework of description yet exists—deserves a thorough investigation. While we do not have valid criteria by which any of these varieties and their features can be identified, the following approaches are provisionally proposed.

A Model for the Description of English as an International Language

It is unfortunate that the variegated nature of English, or any language for that matter, has been badly neglected. Not until very recently has some dissatisfaction with the description of English been felt. "Since many people side-step the recognition of a plurality of Englishes," Strevens (1965: 74) insists, "let us be bold and agree to accept as 'English' any piece of human behaviour that is clearly meaningful language, whether spoken or written, and which is not any language other than English." He puts forth further that the description be based on such criteria as accent, dialect, register, and style since they are capable of embracing any and all of the possible variations of the language.

Let us be quite clear that we are using the words *accent, dialect, register,* and *style* not in the conventional way but as technical terms from a sociolinguistic standpoint. What, then, is meant by accent? In this analysis of varieties, accent is defined in terms of pronunciation—which means that any and every variety of language spoken by anyone anywhere can be identified as being one accent or another. That is to say, an accent is not something peculiar but something that we all have.

The term dialect here is used to refer to any and every variety of language spoken or written which differs in patterns of grammar and vocabulary. In this view, the standard form, too, is one kind of dialect, and it is neither better nor worse than any other dialect.

The foregoing statement about accent and dialect reflects the differences of the individual speaker, or writer, or both—that is, the user of language. There is yet another variety relating to the differences of use for which the term register is employed. Registers are identified by a mixture of features of grammar and pronunciation, as well as of vocabulary—and not solely by specialized scientific and technical terms as is generally understood.

Finally, the terms style, manner of discourse, or tenor of discourse are used to refer to the varieties according to the different social relations between the speaker or writer and his audience, as well as the nature of the situation. Styles are signalled by grammatical and vocabulary as well as pronunciation features.

The distinctions we have so far made between accent, dialect, register, and style can now serve as a guide with which to explore the diversity in language. We now have to recognize that a person will speak or write differently, on a given subject, to different people. He may change his style and register. He may change from one dialect to another, or from one accent to another. A standard dialect, like all other dialects, is subject to variation. Sociolinguistically speaking, we can therefore talk about the standard form and its dialects with equal validity.

All in all, it follows from the above discussion that a person's language is indeed part and parcel of his identity and culture. Since language is part of the total culture of a society, a model for the description of linguistic diversity should therefore view language as a constellation of varieties, each symbolizing a distinct sociocultural reality with a considerable prestige of its own.

Perhaps at this point a cursory review of a theoretical model for the description of linguistic diversity is in order. According to Strevens (1977), there are two major approaches: "a descriptive study of varieties," and "a sociolinguistic study of varieties." A monumental work of the descriptive tradition is *A Grammar of Contemporary English* (Quirk *et al.*, 1972) which has emerged as a result of the recent massive Survey of English Usage. Two principal hypotheses in the direction of sociolinguistic study of varieties are apparent in the work of Bernstein (1971, 1973, 1975) and that of Labov (1966, 1971, 1972)—technically known as the Deficit Hypothesis and the Variability Concept.

In the framework of the Variability Concept, descriptions of language variation aim to explain the entire social network of communicative competence that speakers have at their disposal in correlation with the social norms and parameters. The Deficit Hypothesis, on the contrary, claims that the linguistic ability of particular social groups (e.g., lower class compared to middle class) is more limited than that of others; hence, the terms *restricted speech code* and *elaborated speech code* are used. In other words, instead of describing the manifest differences between the two varieties in terms of their various functional capabilities, they are on the basis of an *a priori* normative scale of values–interpreted as a deficit phenomenon (Dittmar, 1976).

So much, then, for these theoretical positions. And this brings me to one observation that I would like to discuss with regard to sociocultural meaning and non-native speakers of English. The following example was cited by Peng (1975). It is the case of Mr. Fujii, a Japanese student who wrote to the editor of *The Japan Times*, for he was unable to understand the meaning of an English expression in this sentence: "The Russians couldn't stand the heat of world opinion, and they *got out of the kitchen*." To explain the sociocultural meaning of the idiom in question, the editor provided a lengthy reply referring to the context of the situation in which the sentence was first used by U.S. President Harry Truman and summed up that it would mean "to remove oneself from a difficult or intolerable situation." Perhaps Peng's remarks on this are worth quoting in full:

> Unlike an American male of his age, Mr. Fujii has probably never done dishes for his mother in the kitchen; moreover, he has never seen an oven for baking, grilling, and roasting or a range big enough to create heat in the kitchen; furthermore, being accustomed to Japanese cuisine that serves more cold dishes than hot ones, it was impossible for him to fully realize Western cooking in action so as to associate the cook with the politician, the kitchen with the political stage, the heat with the criticism in the press, and the delicious food with the success in a political career, or something of that nature. In addition, I must point out that a few hot dishes in Japanese cuisine, such as *sukiyaki*, though creating heat, tend to draw people together around the heat, because they are often served in the living room in the winter when heating is a good thing to have. It was probably inconceivable to Mr. Fujii that people run away from heat when it is such a precious attraction in Japanese cooking. (Peng, 1975: 26)

Mr. Fujii's case is indeed a perfect example of how difficult it is to understand the real meaning if one is not well-versed in the whole culture of the people using the language. The more knowledge speakers of English have of the culture and corresponding idiosyncracies of any other locally-developed variety of English, the deeper the communication will be. A description such as the one being proposed acknowledges this and makes it clear that knowledge of the language alone, even a native speaker's knowledge, is often not enough for complete communication.

This is how it goes. In the southwest of England in 1949, a Thai student was asked by a hostess of the family: "On which day of the week would you like to have your bath?" From this straightforward question, the Thai student in question had this to say: "I understood every word she said but had no idea what she meant. Silence on my part. The lady repeated her question, and I gave her no response. Finally she decided that I should have my bath on Wednesdays." (Sukwiwat, forthcoming) This, too, was my personal experience when I did my postgraduate study in England in 1963. To quote a little further from the Thai student mentioned above:

> I understood every word my hostess said but could not figure out the meaning implied in her question. The idea of having a day for baths had no reference in my mind since I was from a water-oriented culture where one could bathe or take a bath frequently as one wished. It was probably my fault for not learning more about the everyday life, such as hygiene habits, of the people from the culture I was to live in. But, I think, my hostess was equally guilty of assuming that the guest shared the same personal habits and expectations as herself.

These and other numerous linguistic misadventures indicate that there is a big gap between the English language and a given foreign culture. The crucial point is this: What criteria should we adopt for describing English when it is being used to express concepts native to a culture other than English?

Let us first of all be quite clear that we are not talking about mere interference or interlanguage problems here. Rather, I would argue that in the non-native setting, the principal aspect of language–its sociocultural meaning–badly needs more serious discussion and investigation than it has received so far. In this regard, Brumfit (1980: 87) puts forward that, "Most of the description of models has concentrated on the comparatively easily describable features of pronunciation and syntax." It's now high time we turned towards semantics, to investigate the role of meaning or meanings across cultures, or to what Higa (1971) calls Contrastive Sociolinguistics to determine how universal or culture-specific are the factors that go into cross-cultural communication.

In the following discussion we shall look at some non-native varieties of English. Here are three examples:

> In 1975, when Teng Hsiao-Ping, the arch unrepentant capitalist roader in the Party, wantonly stirred up a Right deviationist wind to reverse correct verdicts, absurd claims and strange theories were spread in Shenyang.
>
> Please, help yourself. It's poor tea, and perhaps I don't make tea the way you prefer, but please try it.
>
> Without stable government, counterinsurgency cannot be effectively implemented but, even in the political conflicts with the communists, an elected government in any democratic process must be in a better position than any other–in the long run.

Let us now consider the above examples one by one and discuss them in their sociocultural settings. The first instance, as you may be well aware, is the use of English in a Chinese context. This is an ideal example of social and cultural deviation from American or British practice, achieved by the use of such indicators of registers as "arch," "wantonly," as well as some Marxist metaphorical expressions like "capitalist roader," and "Right deviationist wind"–which may sound somewhat bizarre to the native speaker. However, it is clearly an instance of historical, political, and social concepts expressed in English which will prevent the meaning from being immediately apparent to anyone except those who are familiar with a brief history of the political situation in Peking at that time; or, more importantly, those who personally had or have a cultural contact with the situation. A native-English version of this example would be something like: "In 1975, when Teng Hsiao-Ping argued against current thinking, absurd claims and strange theories were spread in Shenyang" (Brumfit, 1980: 91).

The second example is English in a Japanese context. Both the vocabulary and the grammatical structures used are very simple. Yet it is loaded with sociocultural norms of the Japanese. When you are invited to tea in Japan, your host or hostess will try to be as sensitive as possible to your preference by guessing what kind of tea you would like to have—without asking such questions as: "Which would you like, tea or coffee?" "Do you take cream and sugar?" However, in order to avoid the possibility of having misjudged your preference, they might humbly say something like the second example cited above. And, from the Japanese standpoint you would be expected to say something like: "Thank you very much. It's very nice."—in spite of the fact that it may not at all suit your preference! There are three reasons for this. First, you are supposed to realize that your host or hostess has tried to do their best for you. Secondly, you can anticipate that you might make the same misjudgments when you invite someone to your place because you are not supposed to ask explicitly—that is, if you really want to be polite. Thirdly, the most important things are hospitality and human relationships, not the act of making tea itself (Park, 1973).

Finally, the Thai example given above. This is included to show that it is a case of direct translation of words rather than ideas. Native speakers of English would, to a certain extent, have some trouble with the concepts expressed in such an illogical fashion. Perhaps this is also true for the Chinese case above. It poses the problem of communicating a thought process different from that usually associated with native English. Here we have something more spiral than straightforward. More laconically, this is how a native speaker would probably say the same thing: To implement a counterinsurgency policy, a stable government is essential. Moreover, a democratically elected government will be in the best position possible in any political conflicts with the communists.

I have dwelt upon these examples and hope I have said enough to suggest that whenever a different sociocultural framework is to be expressed through English, a model for the description must be able to accommodate and account for the meaning or meanings across cultures. All of these examples are marked—to the native speaker—yet they are clearly varieties of English according to our working definition. Therefore, ways and means must be found to identify and relate them to all other varieties of English.

The implication here is that more emphasis should be put on similarities between educated varieties of English in their different sociocultural contexts—and less stress on the diversities.

Some Practical Implications

Perhaps the most important general conclusion we can draw from all this is that it can serve as a more meaningful model for ESOL and/or EIIL–to use the latest acronym in the evolving field of English language teaching to non-native speakers of the language. In this connection I feel tempted to quote from Kachru (1976: 235) concerning the model of English for India. "It does not necessarily have to be RP or standard American English. Let the model be *educated* Indian English. A little effort on the part of the native speakers to understand Indians," he maintains, "is as important as a little effort on the part of Indians to make themselves understood by those who use English as their first language." In the final analysis, it is no exaggeration to say that any locally-developed variety of English can be used as an instructional model in its own right. The current trend in the description of linguistic diversity favors this approach, and it is commonly endorsed by sociolinguists today.

To sum up, we have to admit that the total possible range of varieties of English is extremely great: "Not that the distinction between British and American is the only distinction that needs to be made: on the contrary," Strevens (1965: 74) claims, "this difference is not even a very important one, despite popular views on the subject." And, to my mind, it is healthy, meaningful, and realistic to recognize a plurality of Englishes.

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An Elitist or a Japanized English?

Lewis Smith

My topic is the feasibility of a Japanese-English dialect, that is, a kind of English in which elements of Japanese pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and idiom are incorporated. This topic bears directly on the teaching of English, for it is important for any English teacher, native or non-native, to decide to what extent he should include these elements in his teaching of the language. My discussion is based partly on my own experience and partly on the controversy that raged on the editorial page of the *Japan Times* recently about the proposals of linguist Takeo Suzuki of Keio University for a Japanized type of English.

In order to develop a meaningful discussion, I shall establish a dialogue between two opposing views on the topic. The first is the view of the purist who insists that the English of the native speaker be taught without any changes or accretions from the outside; the second is the opposing view of the nationalist, who contends that English should be adapted to accommodate some of the peculiar practices of his own non-native language, in this case, Japanese. Let us call the purist Jones, a common name in English, and the nationalist Suzuki, not only the name of the professor but also a common surname in Japan. We will start with Suzuki.

Suzuki: Owing to well-known economic and political, but not linguistic factors, English has become the international language of the world today as well as the *lingua franca* among many peoples.

Dr. Smith received degrees in English from Harvard (B.A., M.A.) and the Univ. of Iowa (Ph.D.). He has taught at five universities in the U.S. and Canada and has been on the English faculty at Hiroshima Jogakuin Daigaku for the past nine years.

This gives the native speaker an unfair advantage, while it handicaps the non-native. The time has come to rectify this inequitable situation; we must place English at an equal distance from all countries. First, native speakers must become less rigorous about their own language, and must show more tolerance and patience toward non-natives and allow them to use the language in their own ways. Secondly, non-native speakers must be allowed to develop their own kinds of English, incorporating their own pronunciation, intonation, and even parts of their grammar. At the same time they must overlook much of the native cultural elements like idioms in the language, more specifically the British and American elements, which are irrelevant to the non-native. Let us look at the four constitutents of the language in turn—pronunciation, intonation, grammar, and idiom—and see how we may develop a Japanese-oriented English.

In the case of pronunciation, why not allow the Japanese to say "sink" or "shink" instead of "think" since the /th/ sound is not in Japanese and the /s/ and /sh/ are. After all, the Germans and Scandinavians are likely to say "dink" instead of "think" and the French say "tink." Bjorn Borg, one of the greatest athletes of the decade, uses English all the time, but can't pronounce "th." "I dink dat" is the way he begins most of his sentences. But no one has any doubt about what he means.

The same holds true in regard to intonation. If the Japanese, along with most people who speak English as a second language, tend to articulate the unstressed vowel in the native's speech, simply because they learn English first in its written form, why not allow them to? Yes, even if it is contrary to native practice. Understanding is not impeded. Thus while the native speaker elides the second vowel after the stressed first vowel in "mineral" or "eligible" (/min´ral/, /el´jəbl/), the Japanese and others do not follow the stress system of the native but have /min-er-al/ and /el-i-je-bl/. The native speaker elides the "of" in "a cup of coffee." The Japanese student doesn't, but so what?

Thirdly, in Japan at least, let us retain some of our own grammatical idiosyncracies. Since in Japanese, as in many other languages, we agree to a negative question with an affirmative answer, contrary to native usage, why not let us do it our own way in our own country? To the question "There won't be any school today, will there?" *hai* (yes) is a more logical answer than *iie* (no), anyway.

Finally, the English idioms are an unnecessary burden in learning the language, so why not drop them or most of them? Since the majority of them are culturally derived from England or America, they are difficult for us to understand, besides being unnecessary, for they can be put into other words which have practically the same meaning. For example, take some of the idioms from the common verb "to make": "made the grade," "made hay," "made good," or "made out." Each of these idioms has a connotation of success in a competitive world, reflecting the competitive American way of life. Indeed, we can easily substitute "succeeded" for "made the grade," and "benefited" for "made hay" with little loss meaning. Besides, many of the idioms border on the colloquial and come and go in the language, so we can do without them.

But all of what I have said does not mean for a minute that I would favor or even countenance sloppiness and incompetence in the use of English by the student. To insure that every student attain an accurate grasp of the language, I would insist that every student know its norms and structure from a study of the written language, and know the logic and rationality behind its patterns. But I would also try to make learning English more interesting and relevant to him by adapting it to his own language and to his own experiences.

Jones: How silly can one get, Suzuki, to use an American idiom? Do you mean to say you would listen unperturbed to a student substituting "shink" for "think," "hood" for "food," or "rub" for "love," and do nothing about it? Worse, you would encourage him? For shame! Your proposals would bring about a Tower of Babel situation, in which no one could understand anyone else, besides corrupting the English language.

Admittedly, we all understand "min-er-al" and the "of" in "cup of coffee." But I am sure you know there are many words in English in which stress determines meaning; for example, the verb "ob-ject´ " and noun "ob´ ject." Or if a student comes across a word like "monotonous" and gives each syllable equal stress, he would mystify the native. Instead of "mo-not´ o-nous" he would hear "mo-no-to-nous." And you must know the importance of other intonation phonemes in determining meaning in spoken English. When I ask, for example, this question, "What are you going to have to eat, mutton?" without a rise in pitch at the end, it sounds as if I'm addressing mutton.

As for reversing the native "no" to the Japanese "yes" in the response to a negative question, that *is* silly. Say, for example, the American president in a time of crisis gets on the hot line, the emergency phone, calls the Japanese prime minister, and asks, "A war hasn't started over there, has it?" Though there is no war, the prime minister, adopting the Suzuki grammar, replies "yes." The result could be disastrous.

And as for English idioms, they are at the heart of the language. And they cannot be put into other words without a change in meaning, though slight. Expressions like "pull out," "look after," or "catch the eye" are so common as to be indispensable. If you intend seriously to teach the written language to your students, you will have to include idioms in your teaching. The fact is that some cultural elements are engrained in every natural language; learning it requires some study of its cultural context. How can anyone study the honorifics in Japanese without some appreciation of the long feudal culture in which they are rooted?

Suzuki: Please wake up and die right, Jones, and take the glue out of your ears. You ignored my point about pronunciation. I cited various ways of pronouncing "think"; my argument being that the pronunciation of English has no exact or discernible standard, but varies considerably from country to country, native or non-native, as well as within each country, especially in the pronunciation of vowels. Which variant do you recommend, Jones: British, American, Australian, or some hybrid mixture in between? And why can't we have our own pronuniciation of the language as well as the natives? They don't own the language. Seriously, do we teach our students American /aesk/ or British /ask/, Canadian /oot/ or American /out/, British /hoat/ or American /hot/, Australian /mite/ or American /mate/? Why should we waste a lot of time drilling students to say /ae/ when the sound is not in their language and when even some native speakers don't use it? If Bjorn Borg can say "dink" and so important a statesman as Henry Kissinger can say "ve vill" without any loss in communication, why insist on the lowly student saying "think" or "aesk?"

Again, intonation patterns vary considerably among native speakers; thus British "sta´tion´ry" and American "sta´tion-ar´y." I am sure that you will find the intonation practiced by your Japanese students easier to understand to your American ear than that you'll hear in a working class Lancashire pub. The English queen, for that matter, follows a quite different intonation pattern than you do, besides saying "ask" just as do your students. Is your English better than the Queen's, Jones? Furthermore, there is nothing sacred about your grammatical rules. A British school grammar insists on "the government have increased taxes"; the American on "the government has increased taxes." The British textbook harps on the distinction between "shall" and "will" while the American usually ignores it. And so on. Idioms mean different things to different peoples. "To knock up," meaning to build, is perfectly respectable in Britain; but in America it has quite a different meaning, to make pregnant, and is avoided in mixed company. Anyway, most idioms are not essential for the student's needs. The point is that he can communicate well in English without them.

Jones: You talk as if you had bats in your belfry, Suzuki. Your trouble is that you confuse various native dialects with the standard variety of English, what we call Network Standard in America. The Canadian and Australian pronuniciations you mentioned are dialect sounds, not Standard. A dialect is not the standard language used in the writing and speech of the educated, but a variant of that standard. Of course, dialects are interesting, but they are not useful to anyone trying to learn English, since we find them among the less educated or among the geographically or socially isolated peoples. Where we don't find them is among the articulate and important; we don't encounter dialect, or very little of it, in the mass media, on the radio, on TV, or in films. Instead we hear Standard English. In teaching, we want our students to know the commonly accepted language of the articulate classes, the koine required in the United States and England of TV and radio announcers, screen actors and professional people. To that end we should direct the efforts of the student toward learning to pronounce the phonemes of Standard English correctly. Let me give an example of non-native Standard English. Take the English spoken at the United Nations by non-natives; it varies but little from the Standard language spoken by educated Americans or Englishmen. Or listen to prominent non-native statesmen such as Mr. Gromyko, Mrs. Gandhi, Mr. Trudeau, or Sheik Yamani and observe how standardized their English sounds. Educated circles frown on the use of dialect. No American politician ever got anywhere unless he dropped his regionalisms and dialect and trained himself to use the King's English. Jimmy Carter might say "yo'ahll come back" to close friends, but not in a news conference. Martin Luther King might have used black dialect within the circle of family or close friends, but when he spoke in public he used impeccable Standard.

Besides, the cultivation of a Japanese-oriented English goes against the tide of language practices today. With the spread of international communication and the enormous influence of the mass media, the tendency today is all towards the standardization of English, away from the variants. It is these social factors which determine the course of language, not the theories of professors and nationalists. If we encourage the student to use his own pronunciation, apply some of his own grammar to English, and ignore its idioms, we encourage him to go against the stream, and do him no service.

But do you realize, Suzuki, what you are letting the students in for? The fact is that you will make laughing stocks out of them. If they go out in the world and say "shink so," sophisticated people, that is their own peers, will smile and or even laugh at them. One of the sources of ridicule is deviance from the norm; we laugh in relief from our sense of superiority at being above the deviant or unacceptable. Say we ask our students to perform "Romeo and Juliet" and Juliet comes on stage and addresses in Suzuki English: "Lomeo, Lomeo, wherhore art sou Lomeo, Oh Lomeo, my rub." The audience–native or non-native–would laugh.

Suzuki: You do sound like a dreadful snob as well as an old-fashioned colonialist, Jones, always looking down your nose at the hoi polloi. You keep talking about an entity that doesn't exist: what you call the Standard English of the educated. You mean the standard dialect of a ruling class, not so-called Standard English. But which class? British or American? The American dialect you miscall Standard goes back to and grew out of the East Anglia dialect of the early Puritan settlers; the British so-called Standard goes back to West Midlands dialect, and the Canadian to Scottish lowland dialect. To my mind American pronunciation and intonation is flat, nasal, and gravelly, while the British is pleasant, tuneful, and crisp, but that is only my subjective opinion; what is important is that the people have little difficulty understanding each other. Moreover, the written English language is well enough understood in the world to serve as a *lingua franca;* since both have studied the written language in school, a Japanese and an Asian Indian can understand each other in English, even though they may not have spoken it much. Indeed, there is no dialect in English incomprehensible to those who are competent in the language. When dialect becomes incomprehensible, it ceases by definition to be English. Take the fourteenth century English writers: Chaucer, Gower, Langland, and the Gawain poet; in quite different English dialects they wrote poems comprehensible to each other, without any grammar, usage handbooks, dictionaries, or even English teachers. And they had never heard of any single acknowledged Standard. Would you call these poets the less educated, Jones?

The mass media and the jet age are spreading the language everywhere, of course, but this has not made it more standardized, has not leveled dialects everywhere, as you contend. On the contrary, the rapid spread of English as a *lingua franca* has resulted in many more Englishes, many new dialects of English, and many pidgin Englishes. Not only in Japan, but all over the world people are considering English as their own property and engrafting much of their own tongue, especially the spoken elements, onto it. The tendency today is toward permissiveness toward language, just as it is in religion, family, and other areas.

As for ridicule, you must know that it is bad manners to make fun of someone who differs from the norm, in language as in other matters. Until very recently many people unthinkingly laughed at black English, with its supposedly incorrect pronunciation and grammar; today we recognize it as a dialect of English with its own grammar and other elements, and it is being taught in public schools. Only a very rude or intolerant person would laugh at it now.

The kind of Network Standard dialect you have in mind might have a place in the curriculum of the most prestigious universities of foreign studies, but not in the general schools and colleges in Japan, few of whose graduates are likely to win a place in the foreign ministry.

Jones: Suzuki, will you please get your head out of the clouds and come back to earth. It would be nice indeed if society were more permissive above dialect usage; if it allowed people to substitute their dialects and pidgins for Standard English. But the hard fact is that it doesn't. No reputable company here, no TV station, no respectable educational institution is going to hire someone to work in a capacity requiring English if he uses the kind of Japanese-oriented dialect you propose. If we teach the student your system, we fail to do our duty to them, to educate them to take their place in a hard world. Perhaps a bright day will come in the future when any pronunciation or variant will be accepted by company or school, or on TV, radio, or screen. But it hasn't happened yet, and is not likely to in the future, and we ought not sacrifice the students to the unattainable. While it is true that English is spreading, nowhere that I know of are non-native speakers being taught in public schools to substitute their own vowel and consonant phonemes for those of Standard English. And while black English is being taught in the United States in the public schools, it is taught alongside Standard English. Every black student knows that it is the latter language, the Standard, that he must acquire if he is to get ahead in the world.

Suzuki: I notice you are still wearing the old-school tie, Jones. Sometimes you sound like Rudyard Kipling with his white man's burden, fearful of any change. What English has been is so much past history; what it will become is up to each people who use it to determine. An international language no longer belongs to the place or to the people of its origin; no one has any priority over how it is to be used or developed. Like other elitist mossbacks, you fear English is being ruined by the liberties taken with it by outsiders. But there is no danger of this so long as we properly teach the norm of the written language. If we do this, vocal elements will not vary enough to be incomprehensible. If we carefully teach the students the grammar of the language, with its logic and underlying structure, the other elements will follow as a matter of course without all the diversification you fear.

Far from being an idealist, I am simply more practical than you. It is time that we adapted our teaching to the realities of the situation and saved everyone concerned a lot of time and money. If we spend a lot of time drilling the student on front vowels, trying to get him to say /aesk/ instead of /ask/, /maen/ not /man/, this will have at best a temporary effect. He'll soon revert back to /ask/

and /man/. But why bother? Why correct him? Every English listener understands what he means, whether he uses front or mid vowel. Drill books devote pages to the contractions in English, yet if we try to apply the drills and try to teach the student "I'll" instead of "I will," we simply end up talking to ourselves. The contraction drill seldom registers; the contraction cuts off part of the tied verb in the basic formula of the sentence, the subject-verb concurrence, so quite naturally or quite logically the student resists it, no matter how polite he is or how eager to learn what he is fed in the drill. He continues to repeat "I will." Better not to waste his time nor yours on contractions, which have no semantic value anyway. For a similar reason, you can spend a semester drilling black students on the importance of the "s" suffix in the third person singular present verb form, but it won't do much good; it goes against his dialect and sense of sentence formulation, and he'll likely soon go back to its deletion, according to his own grammar. But contractions are only one of numerous excrescences in instruction books on the teaching of English as a second language.

Jones: Alas, Suzuki, I do believe you should retire and go back to the farm. Unfortunately you have your priorities mixed. People learn their native language first by hearing and speaking it; later they are able to read and write it. It follows that people should learn a second language by beginning with its pronunciation, then going on to the written system. The reason students have such a hard time learning English is that they start at the wrong end; they begin by memorizing grammatical rules and patterns and vocabulary, then go on to phonology. As so many native teachers of English have observed, the system should be reversed. Let the students use tapes of native speakers and listen repeatedly to their standard pronunciation. There is no need for the impossible: listening to live native speakers in every school. The tapes will do the job. Then once pronunciation and intonation have been mastered, the time comes to get at the written language.

In the second place, Suzuki, your proposals are not consistent. You would have the student learn rigorously the grammar and rules of written language, its rationality and the logic behind it, but you would allow him to become slipshod in the way he learned the other elements. If you allow the student freedom in pronunciation, let him use his own phonemes for those he doesn't have, he is likely to get in the habit of taking freedoms elsewhere in learning the language. The permissiveness in speaking becomes contagious. What is to prevent him saying "goose" for "geese" or "may" when he means "can," for example? Once you open the gates of permissiveness, you may find it hard to close them.

Instead of making it easier for students to learn English as a natural language, your approach would only make it harder for them. You would sanction, nay encourage, all the bad practices being carried on today in the classroom in Japan. The sad truth is that everything you advocate–native pronunciation and intonation in place of Standard, adoption of certain native grammatical peculiarities, and abandonment of English idioms–is precisely what gets taught today in the schools in Japan, not by intention, but by default, by taking the easiest way out of the morass. The result is that the schools don't do much to elevate the student to the point of competence in the use of English.

It may be a bitter prospect for the nationalist, but he might as well face up to the linguistic facts of life. Natural English has become the international language, and it is our job to teach it to the student properly and fully, with all its front vowels, intonation phonemes, with all its idioms and cultural accretions. To learn it otherwise, to take the short cuts you propose, is short-sighted and irresponsible; the student learns only a bastardized fragment of the language. Of course the situation in Japan is not fair; the native does have an unfair advantage. But as, John F. Kennedy once said, "Life is unfair." There is no other way out, since the numerous attempts to compose an artificial world language, such as Esperanto and Basic English, have all failed.

Suzuki: This is my swan song, Jones, but how you do pontificate! You assert that the best way for a non-native to learn English is through first hearing and speaking it, the mim-mem method, I believe. Many authorities disagree with you, certainly I for one. It's your opinion only, for which you give no evidence.

You are so set on the teaching of what you call Standard English that you stick to outworn language practices long after the contradictions in them have become intolerable. Whether one likes it or not, people everywhere today are using the new universal tongue English in their own ways; the result is that new norms and new standards have emerged for those using it. The old Standard dialect doesn't serve their purpose.

Moreover, that communication can be effective in English without much reliance on the "Standard" is evident from the widespread use of pidgin English wherever the British and American colonialists planted their flag and introduced their language (often by force). The pidgin of the immigrant Chinese and of the American Indians in the United States, and of the West Indians and West Africans dispensed with a substantial portion of the phonology, grammar, and vocabulary of the master colonialist, indeed all that was unnecessary, yet served as an effective vehicle of communication between native and non-native speaker. I am not advocating the adoption of pidgin, of course, but an elimination of what is useless to us in Standard English.

The use of language, after all, is a creative process; you can't divorce it from the speech of living people. A person has to feel that the language he is using belongs to him, is the product of his own feelings and is related to what he knows best, his own culture. He must be free to choose and order his language as radically as he pleases. Otherwise the juice dries up; learning a language becomes like memorizing the Christian cathechism; you learn it because you have to, just as a robot would learn it. Little wonder that the students, many of them, come to dislike the English that is taught to them, since there is so little of their own experiences and knowledge in it.

We must have more respect for the student's intelligence, and present the language to him as a grammar, that is, as a coherent structure with universal properties similar to those in his own tongue. We need to show him how its constituent parts function in relation to each other and in relation to the whole. We should avoid the piecemeal approach, that is, teaching the student a lot of unrelated bits of information. It is up to us to change the outmoded approaches, even if legitimized by society.

Although English is absolutely necessary in science, technology, government, and the arts in Japan, that doesn't mean it has to be the dialect of a small and archaic Anglo-Saxon ruling class. Let it be an English adapted to our needs; as long as we communicate clearly, why should we be concerned about the phony standards of an elitist dialect. Until now the study of the tongue has been import-oriented, the study of English and American authors. Instead let it become Japan-oriented, the study of works by and about Japanese, Lafcadio Hearn in preference to Mark Twain.

Finally, Jones, there is a good deal of self-serving as well as class snobbery in your approach–putting native English on a pedestal. Naturally, the native teacher wants students to learn the language the way he knows it. If the students start saying, "You are teaching me a lot of useless frills, wasting my time by pestering me about accents, about dropping the final *g* in present participles, about using *different than* in preference to *different from*, and you are too ready to correct my deviations," then you feel threatened. You may lose some of your business. However, if you want people to buy the product you are selling, you ought to exercise care that what you sell is not shoddy.

Finally, all I have said boils down to the fact that communication should take precedence over elitist standards.

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Folktales: A Context for Developing Communicative Competence

Sandra McKay

The selection of a reading text is particularly important in ESL classes since an appropriate text can provide a context for developing various levels of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980: 29-31) have distinguished four components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. This paper illustrates how folktales can be used to provide an effective context for developing skills in all four areas.

Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence is a knowledge of lexical items and rules of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Grammar exercises, such as sentence-combining exercises, often consist of groups of sentences which illustrate a particular grammatical structure, but which are totally unrelated in content. The rationale behind using such exercises is that repetitive exposure to a particular structure will foster competence in using the structure. Unfortunately, such exercises often encourage students to manipulate the language mechanically without any concern for the meaning of the sentences. Folktales, on the other hand, frequently contain a natural repetition of a particular structure, because of their oral tradition. Thus, they provide not only repeated exposure to certain grammatical structures, but they do so in a thematically unified context.

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Let us examine how a particular folktale could be used to develop students' grammatical competence. "Axe Porridge" is a tale from central Russia. Although the text is short, it offers an excellent context for introducing students to parallelism since it contains numerous examples of this grammatical device on a word, phrase, and sentence level.

The story tells of an old soldier passing through a village on his way home on leave. "*Tired* and *hungry*, he rapped at the first cottage he came to." Although the old woman who answered the door had plenty of food, she told him that she had nothing. The soldier replied that if she had nothing, he could make some porridge out of an axe. Although she doubted him, "she *picked* up the axe and *handed* it to the soldier. The soldier *washed* the axe carefully, *dropped* it into a pot of water and *placed* it on the stove to boil. . . . Now and again the soldier *stirred* the water and *tasted* it with a spoon."

Although it smelled delicious, the soldier felt it needed some salt; so the woman brought him some salt. Then he added that a handful of oats would be perfect; so the old woman brought him some oats. In this way "the soldier went on with his cooking, *stirring* the pot from time to time, *testing* it and *smacking* his lips." Finally, he decided that all that was needed for delicious axe porridge was some butter. After the old woman furnished some butter, he declared that the porridge was ready, and they both sat down and enjoyed a steaming bowl of porridge. The woman, however, was curious as to when they would eat the axe. The soldier replied that the axe was not ready yet, but that in a day or two he would boil it up again and eat it for supper. "With that, he *slipped* the axe up his sleeve, *took* his leave and *set off* for another village. He went chuckling on his way proud of *how* he had tricked the mean old woman into parting with her porridge–and *how* he had earned himself an axe in the bargain."

Thus, in a delightful context students are exposed to a wide range of parallel structures. The text could be used to promote recognition of parallel structure by having students find all the examples of parallelism they can. For production, students could be encouraged to elaborate on the story. They might be instructed to alter the tale by either replacing one of the items in a parallel series or adding to the series as in the following exercise:

Directions: Replace one element in each pair of words or add another element. Then write your own sentence which could be used in another version of the tale.

1. tired/hungry
2. washed the axe/dropped it into a pot of water
3. stirred the water/tasted it with a spoon
4. stirring the porridge/tasting it/smacking his lips
5. slipped the axe up his sleeve/took his leave
6. how he had tricked the mean old woman into parting with her porridge/how he had earned himself an axe in the bargain

This type of exercise would naturally focus the students' attention on the content rather than on the mere manipulation of a structure.

Sociolinguistic Competence

In addition to promoting grammatical competence, folktales can be used to foster sociolinguistic competence (the ability to use appropriate language in different sociolinguistic contexts). Many folktales are told in a way which reflects their oral origins. As such, they provide an excellent context for helping students become aware of the differences between spoken and written language.

The following is the first paragraph of a Sioux Indian folktale entitled "High Horse's Courting" (Neihardt, 1961: 67-75). The tale was told to Neihardt by Flaming Rainbow and it reflects this oral telling.

> You know, in the old days, it was not so very easy to get a girl when you wanted to be married. Sometimes it was hard work for a young man and he had to stand a great deal. Say I am a young man and I have seen a young girl who looks so beautiful to me that I feel all sick when I think about her. I cannot just go and tell her about it and then get married if she is willing. I have to be a very sneaky fellow to talk to her at all, and after I have managed to talk to her, that is only the beginning.

In order to promote the students' recognition of important distinctions between spoken and written language, they could be asked to read the following version of the same paragraph and underline anything that is different from the original paragraph.

> In the old days, it was not easy for a young man to get a girl when he wanted to be married. Sometimes it was hard for him, and he had to put up with a great deal. For instance, there may be a young man who has seen a young girl who looks so beautiful to him that

> he feels sick when he thinks about her. He cannot just go and tell her about it and then get married if she is willing. He has to be a very clever person to talk to her at all, and after he has managed to talk to her, that is only the beginning.

Then the class could discuss ways in which the second version differs from the first in terms of point of view, vocabulary, punctuation, and so on. They could then be instructed to rewrite another paragraph into a more formal register.

Discourse Competence

Because folktales exemplify a wide range of cohesive devices and coherence strategies, they are especially valuable in developing discourse competence. Meyer, in a review of reading research with relevancy for composition instruction (Meyer, 1982), argues for the importance of having students identify the plans contained in a text. She defines a plan as a set of directions for how to present material and describes five basic plans:

> The *antecedent/consequent* plan is devoted to presenting *causal relationships* (like the "if/then" of antecedent/consequent statements in logic). The *comparison* plan presents *two opposing viewpoints*, and can be subdivided accordingly: the *alternative* view gives equal weight to the two sides, whereas the *adversative* view clearly favors one side over the other. The *description* plan develops a topic by describing its component parts, for instance, by presenting attributes, specifications, or settings. . . . The *response* plan contains some kind of statement followed by a response, such as remark and reply; question and answer; problem and solution; and so on. Finally the *time-order* plan relates events or ideas according to chronology. (38)

Meyer contends that different contexts tend to emphasize different plans. For example, newspaper articles are often composed of the description type, whereas scientific treatises often adhere to the response type. For Meyer, reading provides a way to illustrate various plans which can then be utilized in the students' writing.

One of the primary advantages of folktales is that they frequently make use of all five of the basic plans. This is illustrated in the following African folktale entitled, "Thunder and Lightning" (Arnott, 1962: 32–33). The tale begins with the usual "A long time ago, both thunder and lightning lived on this earth. . . ." (*time* *order*). It then proceeds to describe thunder as an old mother sheep and lightning as a handsome ram (*description*). According to the tale, whenever anyone offended lightning, he would fly into a rage and begin to burn the countryside. Whenever he did this, thunder would raise her voice and rebuke him. The problem was that the villagers were upset by the damage caused by lightning and the unbearable noise made by his mother (beginning of first *response* plan, specifically, problem/solution).

Because of their annoyance, they went to the king (*antecedent/consequent*). The king suggested that they send thunder and lightning to live in the wild bush (end of first *response* plan). However (*comparison*), this plan still did not solve the problem since lightning was so angry that he now set fire to the whole forest (beginning of second *response* plan). Thus (*antecedent/consequent*), the king called his advisers together. They advised him to banish thunder and lightning to the sky so they would do no further damage (end of second *response* plan). Thus (*antecedent/consequent*), thunder and lightning were sent to the sky. However (*comparison*), things did not work out as well as the villagers had hoped for since lightning still loses his temper from time to time and sends down fire. When he does so (*antecedent/consequent*), his mother rebukes him in her loud rumbling voice. That is why today there is thunder and lightning.

Hence, within a short selection, all five basic plans are clearly exemplified. In order to help students make the transition from reading to writing, students could be asked to write their own folktales to account for the origins of some natural phenomenon and to use the following plan:

1. *Time Order:* Begin by telling when the event occurred.
2. *Description:* Describe the original situation.
3. *Response plan:* Present a problem that existed and describe the solution.
4. *Antecedent/Consequent plan:* Describe the effect of the new situation.
5. *Comparison plan:* Describe how things are different from what they used to be.

These five basic plans are evident in the following student elaboration of a well-known story:

Why Men Have to Work

According to the story of my ancient grandmother, God created the earth in six days and six nights. After completing the earth (*time order*), God created Adam to people the earth; but Adam became lonely, so God took one rib from Adam and created Eve to be his wife.

Adam and Eve lived happily together for many years (*description*). In the course of time, she gave birth to two children, Cain and Abel. Eve found that caring for the house and the children took most of her time; therefore (*antecedent/consequent*), Adam's presence was sometimes found to be a nuisance (beginning of *response* plan, specifically problem/solution).

One day Eve became vexed with Adam and said, "Why don't you go outside and find something to do so I can have a few minutes of peace and quiet?"

So Adam wandered into the garden of Eden. In the process of his wandering, he noticed that the flowers and vegetables needed watering and weeding. He therefore (*antecedent/consequent*) decided that his task would be caring for the garden of Eden, so that Eve could have a moment's quiet (end of *response* plan).

Thus (*antecedent/consequent*), Adam created the first job and from thenceforth it has been required that men work, "to keep peace in the family" (*comparison*).

Strategic Competence

Finally, since folktales often contain dialogue, they provide an effective context for promoting strategic competence. Strategic competence is the ability to use verbal and nonverbal strategies to avoid communication breakdown, and also to enhance effective communication. The following tale, for example, illustrates various communication strategies. The story is the delightful tale, "When Shlemiel Went to Warsaw," by Isaac Bashevis Singer (Singer, 1968: 99-116). The tale begins when Shlemiel, a daydreamer, decides to leave his town, Chelm, and set off for Warsaw. On his way, he falls asleep and points his shoes toward Warsaw so that he will not forget the way. However, a blacksmith who is passing by turns his shoes around, so in the morning Shlemiel heads back to Chelm. He is convinced, however, that he has arrived in Warsaw and he is amazed by the fact that everything is the same in Warsaw—there is a house which looks like his house in Chelm, a wife, children, and even Elders of the village who are the same.

Gronam, the head Elder, tries to convince him that he is indeed in Chelm. In order to do this, he uses a strategy of questioning:

"Do you recognize me?"

"Surely. You are wise Gronam the Ox."

"And in your Chelm is there also a Gronam the Ox?"

"Yes, there is a Gronam the Ox and he looks exactly like you."

"Isn't it possible that you turned around and came back to Chelm" Gronam inquired.

"Why should I turn around? I'm not a windmill," Shlemiel replied.

The brief exchange illustrates a communication strategy of using questions to indirectly express doubt or disbelief.

The story continues when the Elders decide that since Shlemiel is convinced that he is not in Chelm, he cannot live in the house that looks like his; rather he must go and live in the poorhouse. This upsets Shlemiel's wife since there will be no one to take care of the children. The Elders then come up with an ingenious solution. The humorous exchange which follows is full of agreement rejoinders.

"Just a moment. I think I have an idea," interrupted Gronam.

"What is your idea?" Zeinvel Ninny inquired.

"Since we decided to send Shlemiel to the poorhouse, the town will have to hire someone to take care of Mrs. Shlemiel's children so she can go to market. Why not hire Shlemiel for that? It's true, he is not Mrs. Shlemiel's husband or the children's father. But he is so much like the real Shlemiel that the children will feel at home with him."

"*What a wonderful idea!*" cried Feyvel Thickwit.

"*Only King Solomon could have thought of such a wise solution,*" agreed Treitel the Fool.

"*Such a clever way out of the dilemma* could only have been thought of in our Chelm," chimed in Shmendrick Numbskull.

One way to increase the students' repertoire of agreement/disagreement rejoinders would be to instruct them to rewrite the dielogue replacing all the agreement rejoinders with expressions of disagreement. In order to provide practice in using questions to show disbelief, they might be asked to write a dialogue between Mrs. Shlemiel and her husband in which she uses a series of questions to express her doubt.

Conclusion

Folktales then offer several advantages in promoting communicative competence. First, they contribute to grammatical competence by providing repeated exposure to grammatical structures. Second, the oral tradition of folktales can be used to illustrate important distinctions between spoken and written language, thus promoting sociolinguistic competence. In terms of writing and discourse competence, folktales are ideal models since they contain such a wide range of basic organizational plans. Finally, folktales can develop strategic competence because they are rich in dialogue. Most importantly, the imaginative quality of folktales provides an enjoyable context in which learning can take place.

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Total Physical Response Is More Than Commands—At All Levels

Contee Seely

There are two common myths about James Asher's Total Physical Response (TPR): firstly, that it consists of the use and performance of commands in the foreign or second language classroom –nothing more; secondly, that it is a method which is useful at the beginning level–not beyond. We will show here that TPR can be used to teach a variety of language skills at many different levels. First we will discuss how the effectiveness of TPR is related to theories of first and second language learning. Then we will treat the question of when and when not to use it. Finally, we will give numerous examples of types of TPR exercises for students at all levels and indicate how such exercises can be used.

Let us look first at Asher's own summary of TPR:

> Understanding the spoken language should be developed in advance of speaking.
>
> Understanding should be developed through movements of the student's body. The imperative is a powerful aid because the instructor can utter commands to manipulate student behavior. Our research suggests that most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned through the skillful use of imperative by the instructor.
>
> Do not attempt to force speaking from students. As the students internalize a cognitive map of the target language through understanding what is heard, there will be a point of readiness to speak. The individual will spontaneously begin to produce utterances. (Asher, 1982: 4)

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Clearly he emphasizes the imperative. However, his leading statement on movements is much broader: "Understanding should be developed through movements of the student's body." This allows for nonimperative ways of developing understanding of the spoken language through body movements.

The instructional strategy Asher proposes is based on an analysis of how children learn their first language (Asher, 1972: 133-9; 1982: 3-4). Obviously children move their bodies in response to language other than commands. Many nonimperative statements—"Can I play with your doll?" "Do you want a cookie?" "This ball is mine."—are very likely to produce a physical response in a small child who is developing an understanding of the spoken language. Asher relates Piaget's work to recent evidence on the functioning of the hemispheres of the brain:

> The infant begins to decode sights and sounds by looking, grasping, touching, pulling, pushing, sucking—all nonverbal motor movement. The infant in the sensorimotor months is tracing a map of how things work, including language. This mapping in the right hemisphere through direct manipulation is necessary for the more advanced construction of concepts in the left hemisphere that result in talking, thinking in logical, linear patterns, and solving problems through symbols—words, numbers, and internalized concepts. (Asher, 1981: 63)

Asher believes that this model of first language learning "continues to operate when an individual—child or adult—attempts to learn a second or third language" (1982: 24), and that TPR fits the model more closely than other current approaches (1981: 63-66). He feels that TPR especially "is in harmony with the biological program" (1982: 4), because it uses body movement extensively both before and after speech appears, and because it does not require the learner to speak before he or she is ready to speak.

Recent discoveries about the workings of the right and left hemispheres of the brain support Asher's findings:

> The right and left hemispheres of the brain process information independently. . . . The left brain seems to communicate through speech while the right brain is mute, but can communicate through physical behavior such as pointing, touching, drawing, singing, gesturing, and pantomime. TPR instruction may permit the student to process information through the right brain while traditional formats such as the audio-lingual or translation approaches may be oriented almost exclusively to left brain processing.
>
> (Asher, 1982: 44)

This "harmony with the biological program" accounts in large part for the "minimum of stress" (1982: 4) in TPR, another reason for its effectiveness. There is evidence from learning and memory research that high anxiety or stress in a learning situation brings about poorer learning than low anxiety or none (Loftus, 1980: 82). In investigating the learning of language specifically, Krashen finds that "*low* anxiety relates [positively] to success in second language acquisition" (1981a: 56).

A further reason for TPR effectiveness is its believability. Asher postulates that an utterance which refers to a factual, primary experience of the learner is more believable than an utterance which refers to something not experienced live and directly (1982: 44). In a discussion of first language learning, Asher mentions three basic principles of learning that relate to believability in particular and which are regularly used in TPR. They are three more ways that TPR approximates what occurs in first language learning:

> The first principle . . . is *contiguity*. The . . . word "Run!," for example, immediately precedes the action in oneself and others. . . . The second principle is *frequency* of pairing between the symbol . . . and the referent. . . . And the third principle is *feedback*. When the . . . utterance appears, the predicted action always follows. There is a cause-effect relationship which validates the connection as truth. (1981: 60)

Finally, Asher puts forth a motor skills hypothesis. He contends that TPR causes "keen activation of the kinesthetic sensory system or 'muscle learning' " (1982: 43) which brings about long-term recall as in manual skills.

To this motor skills hypothesis, let us add its complement, the emotional involvement hypothesis, according to which there is keen activation of the *emotional* system. TPR enlivens a class by creating stimulating experiences, so that students are in a more lively state and the learning thus has a strong emotional base, as well as a physical base. Research indicates that "highly newsworthy events . . . and personally significant events can leave one with what is called a flashbulb memory." The explanation given for such long-term recall of "flashbulb" memories is this: "The main ingredient seems to be a very high level of surprise, often accompanied by emotional arousal" (Loftus, 1980: 126-127).

Emotional arousal can increase anxiety. And yet we have said that a *low* level of anxiety is most conducive to effective language learning. So, we should qualify the emotional involvement hypothesis by saying that levels and kinds of emotional arousal must be controlled so that the level of anxiety of the learner remains "low." The instructor should always be aware of the level of anxiety the learners are experiencing and should be ready to take steps to change the level and kind of emotional arousal. When there is pleasant emotional arousal, students pay close attention. They become lively and receptive and even reach out to receive. There is no chance of dozing off or of boredom.

We have dealt with many reasons for the effectiveness of TPR. Here is a brief summary of them:

1. Close approximation to nature's design for language learning as described by Piaget.
2. Right brain hypothesis.
3. Minimal stress and anxiety.
4. Believability hypothesis (and the contiguity, frequency, and feedback principles).
5. Motor skills hypothesis.
6. Emotional involvement hypothesis.

When a class first begins to use TPR exercises, sometimes there is resistance to them. Students may have never experienced anything like TPR in a class before. They may feel that it is unnecessary to actually do things or that it is childish. It is useful to explain to a class, especially a class which is not starting from scratch with TPR, how it will improve learning. All of the reasons mentioned above for its effectiveness are pertinent. The believability hypothesis and the idea of using the language to actually communicate with other people about real and simulated occurrences are particularly meaningful to students.

We will now consider the question, When should TPR be used in the classroom and when should it not be used? TPR is chiefly an aural-oral approach, so it is not *directly* useful for the learning of reading or writing, except for certain limited exercises aimed primarily at low-level students. Of course, a variety of reading and writing activities can be based on content used in aural and aural-oral TPR activities.

Any piece of language which can be demonstrated actively can be learned through TPR. Objects, maps, and illustrations can be very useful in demonstrating and practicing. Conversely, if it cannot be demonstrated actively, it should be learned some other way. Some bits of language can be demonstrated live only with difficulty or with ambiguity. If you can't do it without tremendous difficulty or without ambiguity, one option is to clarify by translating. Even in this case, TPR may be used after the translation has been given. The learning has only just begun with the clarification of meaning.

Abstractions such as *honor, government, prospect,* and *biology* can be learned to an extent through TPR (Asher, 1982: 46–7). Such words can be written on cards and manipulated like any concrete object. However, this certainly is not live, direct, primary, factual experience in the sense used above. This would be only one part of the process of learning such words. Preferably the learning of abstractions should be delayed until learners comprehend sufficient concrete vocabulary to understand explanations of abstractions and/or to infer their meanings from context. Terms such as *while* and *a long way* are sometimes considered abstractions, but these can be directly demonstrated. For example, see exercises below: Single commands and descriptions, *Free unrelated commands and descriptions*, number five (p. 50); and Action series, *Nontense structure work* (p. 56).

If an instructor must follow a given curriculum, book, or syllabus, should he or she use TPR exercises? Asher has shown that the results in terms of students' achievement in listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing are likely to be superior if TPR is used (Asher, 1982: 5–16). In terms of retention, minimized stress, emotional involvement, ease of interaction, confidence, full experience, and motivation, the results are also likely to be superior. The same advantages pertain when the goal of a course is to prepare students to pass a certain exam, even if the skills to be tested are reading and writing, including translation.

We are now in a better position to answer the question of how useful TPR is not only at beginning levels but at all levels of language learning. Part of the answer, of course, lies in knowing how to use TPR to teach a variety of language skills. In the examples of TPR exercises which are given below, there may be several learning goals simultaneously. They may include the development of fluency, the practice of pronunciation, listening comprehension practice, or the learning of material useful in certain functions or situations. Or the goal may be to learn words or structures which may subsequently be used in the learning of functions, situations, structure or something else.

In every example, the learning or practice of vocabulary, structure, or both is a significant goal. Every English tense has numerous uses. Below you will find examples of only a few of the uses, although most of the tenses are represented. It is important for students eventually to learn all of the uses through live experience. The uses which are most important to the students who are in a class should be dealt with earliest.

There are four basic types of TPR exercises:

1. *Single commands and descriptions,* free unrelated commands and combining exercises.
2. *Action series,* also known as action sequences, action chains, operations, cycles, or audio-motor units.
3. *Action dialogues,* including role-playing dialogues and skits.
4. *Action role-playing* without a prepared script.

Only the first two types are "classical TPR." The other two may derive from these or from other sources. If the two classical types are used before the others or along with them, the latter two are likely to be more lively and more effective. Examples of each type are given below. I have also provided a description of the procedures I have found most useful to make learning efficient for each type of exercise.

Single commands and descriptions

Free unrelated commands and descriptions

1. Erect an edifice.
2. Grapple with your opponent.
3. Search for the torch that Hiro mislaid.
4. If you have some matches, please lend them to me.
5. They were sleeping while we were eating.

In the first two examples, the emphasis is on vocabulary. In the last three, the emphasis is on structure, with the assumption that the vocabulary is already quite familiar to the students. It is essential that students be very familiar with the vocabulary that they meet in new structures if they are learning to produce and use the structures in real oral give and take. This is by no means a new idea (see, for example, Finocchiaro and Bonomo, 1973: 80–2). With specific reference to the learning of structure by using TPR as a basis, this idea was restated by Elizabeth Romijn in her presentation entitled "Live Action Structure" at the CATESOL conference in Sacramento, California, on March 13, 1982.

Combining exercises

1.			nose.
	Caress		patella.
		your	scapula.
	Wiggle		gastrocnemius.
			sternocleidomastoid.

2.	Please	hammer	like crazy.
		laugh	innocently.
	Don't	flutter your eyes	lightly.

Such exercises, also called substitution tables, originated no later than 1524 when one by Erasmus appeared (Kelly, 1969: 101). Combining exercises work well for production as long as the number of elements being used is kept down below twelve or so.

Procedures for single commands and descriptions, and for action series

The purpose of these procedures is to prepare the students to work in pairs or in small groups, speaking and doing actions. The procedures may be varied–some omitted, some repeated–according to what needs to be done to adequately prepare students to work on their own. The procedures are based largely on procedures in Romijin and Seely (1982: viii–xiii) and in part on procedures in Segal (1981: 4).

A. Listening (receptive stage)
   1. Setting up–introducing and reminding of names of objects and places. Objects (even plastic or rubber facsimiles), maps, and illustrations (even if crude) are often very helpful in demonstrating and practicing.
   2. Initial demonstration–modeling of commands/descriptions and appropriate actions by instructor and/or students.
   3. Group live action–students do actions at appropriate time in relation to statements made by instructor.
   4. Combining old and new material–first with modeling, then with group live action. (Not applicable to action series.)

   When group shows it is ready to speak by unhesitating response to commands (or in some other way), proceed to next stage.

B. Speaking (expressive stage)
   5. Repeat above listening steps as necessary.
   6. Oral repetition of commands or descriptions–students may follow words or cue pictures on board or paper. Unless very

little material is being dealt with, this step helps students to get things right.

7. Speaking and live action–students speak and do actions at appropriate times while group observes. Teacher may participate.
8. Oral repetition again.
9. Pair work–students working in pairs, speaking and doing actions at appropriate times, all working at the same time. This step is often noisy and chaotic. It is helpful to use a bell or horn or other signal to call the class to order when the time comes. With many groups of children, this can get out of hand. If you can't get it to work this way, just have them do the action one pair at a time.
10. Written reinforcement–students may copy material, if desired, or you may dictate it to them. This may be done just before or after step six above, if preferred. Another way to do this for action series and dialogues is to write out the format of the material with or without a few cue words. For example:
    Pick _____ ___ ___________ ___ vitamin _______.
    ___________ off _______ _______.
    ___________ out ___ ______.
    ________ __________ pill.
    (For complete version, see below: Action series, *Command action series*, number two.)

Action Series

These are also known as action sequences, action chains, audiomotor units (this term, referring to a specific use of action series, was introduced in Kalivoda, Morain, and Elkins, 1971), and cycles. Such series, perhaps without action, go back at least as far as Pseudo-Dositheus in 250 A.D. (Kelley, 1969: 115). They were later developed more fully by Gouin (1880). Palmer and Palmer (1925) used them with action.

Command action series

1. Extricate the flask from the entangled string.
   Strip the label off the styrofoam flask.
   Crush it with a mighty blow.
   Fling it to the ground.
   Completely destroy it.
   Grind it up with your foot.
   And incinerate it.

2. Pick up the bottle of vitamin pills.
   Take off the top.
   Take out a pill.
   Take the pill. (Romijn and Seely, 1982: 8)

Both series emphasize vocabulary. The second example is a kind of series called an operation—a normal sequence of actions used to accomplish an ordinary procedure. Other examples are sharpening a pencil and using a pay phone.

3. You've got to wash your grubby, filthy hands.
   Grasp the faucet as well as you can.
   Struggle to turn it on.
   Turn it just far enough so that the stream is plentiful but not too strong.
   Pick up the soap with your left hand from the soap dish.
   Scrub your hands for 20 to 30 seconds while you count.
   Rinse your hands off slowly and thoroughly.
   Don't forget to clean under your fingernails.
   (Romijn and Seely, 1982: 1)

Here there is a lot of structure and a lot of vocabulary, most of which is clarified in the first demonstrations of the series. The fact that students learn the meanings of new words through demonstration is important. Until vocabulary becomes familiar, students do not attempt to use these structures in real oral give and take.

Minidrama

Cops and Robbers

1. This is a street.
2. You are a robber. Put on a mask.
3. You are a man. Walk down the street.
4. Robber, tell the man, "Stop!"
5. Tell the man, "Put up your hands and give me your money."
6. Man, give the robber your money.
7. Robber, take the money and run.
8. You are a policeman. This is a police car.
9. Open the door, get into the police car and drive the police car.
10. Man, look for a policeman.
11. Yell, "Police, police!"
12. Policeman, stop the police car and get out.
13. Ask the man, "What's the matter?"
14. Man, tell the policeman, "A robber took my money."
15. Policeman, ask the man, "Where is the robber?"
16. Man, tell the policeman, "I don't know."

17. Policeman, tell the man, "Get into the car."
18. Man, get into the police car.
19. Look for the robber.
20. You see the robber. Point to the robber.
21. Tell the policeman, "That's the man. He took my money."
22. Policeman, stop the car, open the door, get out of the police car and run to the robber. Take the robber to the police car.
23. Man, get out of the police car.
24. Tell the policeman, "Thank you."
25. Policeman, put the robber in the police car. Drive to the police station.

(Adapted from Griffee, 1981: 47; with additional material from the original manuscript.)

This is a variation of action series which Griffee calls a "minidrama." What distinguishes it from other series is that there are always two or more actors or physical respondents to whom the reader or director address the commands. When any exchange of dialogue between actors is included, this is accomplished through "directed dialogue," the reader telling the actors what to say.

Iffy series

If you have on a blue or checkered shirt, wave to me.
If you have on a shirt of another color or pattern, stand up.
If you don't have on a shirt but have on something else instead, sigh.

The "iffy" series is not a series in the usual sense, though it is a connected group of commands. Students can learn a lot of vocabulary through iffy series used as comprehension exercises.

Single-tense series

Series may be done in tenses. It is best for students to have mastered them in the imperative form before they begin to experience them in any of the tenses. Some of the most commonly used tenses are represented in the following three examples. They can be done with all the personal pronouns.

Present continuous

She's going into the movie theater.
Now she's looking for a good seat.
She's watching the movie.
And now she's clapping. (After Romijn and Seely, 1982: 39)

This is always done with the words being spoken as an appropriate person or people are doing the action. The timing is important and often needs attention, especially if some students' native languages normally do not express tense. In the above example, the third person form of the verb is used. The speaker can watch the action while the listener is facing away from it. Notice that *now* and other time and transition expressions may be included.

Simple past

First I went into the movie theater.
Then I looked for a good seat.
I watched the movie.
And I clapped.

All the speaking should occur after all the action has been completed. Note again time and transition expressions. Some other useful ones here are *after that, next,* and *later.*

"Going to" future and "will" future

1. First we're going to go into the movie theater.
   Next we're going to look for a good seat.
   After that, we're going to watch the movie.
   Finally, we're going to clap.
2. They'll go into the movie theater.
   And then they'll look for a good seat.
   And they'll watch the movie.
   Finally they'll clap.

All the speaking should precede all the action. Note expressions of time and sequence.

Tense combination series

These are particularly useful when some or all learners speak native languages in which tense is not necessarily expressed. The most commonly used tenses–"going to" future, "will" future, present continuous, and simple past–are contrasted clearly in this type of exercise. Any two or all three (only one of the futures at a time) may be used in an exercise.

Do any one tense first, as done in the above examples. Then add any other. And finally add the third, in the next session if you prefer. All deal with the same actions. I usually do the past first. Then I do the "going to" future along with the past. And finally I do the "going to" future, followed by the present continuous and the past at the end.

Nontense structure work

Place on the wall, toward the back of the classroom, a map of a far-off place, say Africa if you are in Tokyo. Place at the front of the room a map of a nearby city or town, say Yokohama. Then do the following series:

> Go to Yokohama.
> Come back fast—in half an hour.
> Yokohama's not very far away.
> Go to Africa.
> Come back fast—in two days.
> Africa's a long way.

The distances can be exaggerated through the movements and gestures of the physical respondents.

Action Dialogues

These are dialogues in which action is performed with or without commands. Palmer and Palmer (1925) called these "interlocutory series" and "conventional conversation." "Role-playing dialogues" and longer (not improvised) skits are usually action dialogues. Often the main goal is to learn certain aspects of structure, most often a certain use of a tense and/or the forms of a tense. The main goal may also be to learn a certain piece of language which is difficult to work on in any other way. Any of the structure action dialogues can be used with different content, and it is generally wise to use them several times with different content each time.

Some of the examples given are dialogues based on action series which have been previously mastered by the learners. It is often possible and at times essential to do this. When a dialogue is not based on familiar material, it may be useful to include a series at the beginning providing actions which will be mentioned further along in the dialogue.

Much of this section is based on Romijn (1982). She pointed out that in learning structure through action dialogues learners need to "hear a structure enough times in a completely comprehensible context so that they can later produce it."

A number of examples are presented here in order to demonstrate how various uses of tenses can be learned through live experience. Almost any of these sample dialogues could be based on an appropriate section of almost any action series. For economy's sake, many of them are based on the following brief action series:

Go into the movie theater.
Look for a good seat.
Watch the movie.
Clap. (After Romijn and Seely, 1982: 39)

Single-tense dialogues

Present continuous

Using any of the actions in the series:

1. 1: What am I doing?
2: You're clapping.

2. 1: What're you doing?
2: I'm looking for a good seat.

3. 1: What's she/he doing?
2: She/he's watching the movie.

4. With pictures of a bank and a movie theater on the wall:
1: Go into the theater.
2: (Begins to do it.)
1: Don't go into the bank!
2: I'm not going into the bank!
1: What *are* you going into?
2: I'm going into the theater.

Note that this example includes the declarative affirmative and negative forms and the interrogative, all in contrast to the affirmative and negative imperative forms.

Simple present (in contrast with present continuous)

1. 1: (Does action without stopping until she or he has answered the first question. In some cases, she or he must do it slowly for proper timing.)
2: What are you doing?
1: I'm going into the theater.
2: How often do you go to the movies?
1: I go about once a month.

2. 1: (Does action as above.)
2: What are you doing?
1: I'm clapping.
2: Do you clap every day?
1: No, I don't clap every day, but I clap sometimes. OR: Yeah, I clap every day.

Other expressions of frequency may, of course, be used.

Simple past

1. Have various people perform one or more of the actions in a series which has been previously mastered by the class. Each action must be performed by only one of the people. (The same procedure may be used in conjunction with the present continuous and the "going to" and "will" futures.)

   (a) 1: Who clapped?
   2: Mrs. Sasaki did.

   (b) 1: What did Sara do?
   2: She watched the movie.

2. Tricky question. Note that the affirmative interrogative and the affirmative and negative declarative simple past forms are all included here.

   1: Why did John look for some money?
   2: He didn t look for any money.
   1: What did he look for?
   2: He looked for a good seat.

3. 1: Turn around and don't look.
   2: Okay.
   1: (Does one or more actions. Then says:) Okay. Turn around.
   2: What did you do?
   1: I ate a hamburger and I drank some sake.

"Going to" future

1. 1: What are you going to do first?
   2: I'm going to go into the movie theater.
   1: What are you going to do then?
   2: I'm going to look for a good seat.
   1: What are you going to do after that?
   2: I'm going to watch the movie.
   1: What are you going to do last?
   2: I'm going to clap.

2. 1: Are you going to clap first?
   2: No, I'm not going to clap first. I'm going to go into the movie theater.
   1: Then are you going to clap?
   2: No, I'm not going to clap then. I'm going to look for a seat.

(Continue through the series or segment of the series.)

"Will" future

1. Teacher to one student:

Look for a good seat.
Wait a minute.
If you find one, sit down.
If you don't, leave.
Okay. Go ahead.

Then, before this student performs the action, two other people say this:

1: What's he/she going to do?
2: Look for a good seat.
1: What'll he/she do if he/she finds one?
2: He'll/she'll sit down.
1: What'll he/she do if he/she doesn't?
2: He'll/she'll leave.

2. 1: After you watch the movie, what'll you do?
2: I'll clap.

Present perfect

These exercises must be based on one or more action series.

1. Negative

1: Look for a good seat.
2: Hey, wait a minute!
1: What's the matter?
2: I haven't gone into the theater yet.
1: Oh, right. Well, go in.

2. Affirmative

1: (Claps.)
2: Clap.
1: I've already clapped.
2: Oh, right. Sorry.

3. Interrogative

1: (Does first two actions.)
2: Have you gone into the movie theater yet?
1: Yeah.
2: Have you looked for a good seat?
1: Yes, I have.
2: Have you watched the movie?
1: No, not yet.
2: Have you clapped?
1: No, not yet.

Of course, the action can be stopped at any point.

4. Affirmative and negative.

1: (Does first two actions.)
2: What have you done so far?
1: So far, I've gone into the theater, and I've looked for a good seat.
2: What haven't you done yet?
1: I haven't watched the movie, and I haven't clapped.

The action can be stopped at any point.

5. 1: (Does everything.)
2: What have you done so far?
1: I've done everything.
2: Great!

6. 1: (Does nothing.)
2: What have you done so far?
1: I haven't done anything yet.

Conditional

1. 1: If you went into the movie theater, what would you do first?
2: I'd look for a good seat.
1: What would you do after that?
2: I'd watch the movie.

2. 1: If you went into the movie theater, would you sit on the floor?
2: No, I wouldn't sit on the floor. I'd look for a good seat.
1: Would you watch the people in the theater?
2: No, I'd watch the movie.

3. 1: If you went into the movie theater, what would you do in there?
2: I'd look for a good seat. Then I'd watch the movie. Then, at the end, I'd clap.

Conditional perfect

The teacher says to one student:

Look for a seat.
Wait a minute.
If you find one, sit down.
If you don't, leave.
Okay. Go ahead.

Then, after this student has performed the action, two other people say this:

1: What did she/he do?
2: She/he left.
1: Why didn't she/he sit down?
2: Because she/he didn't find a seat.
1: What would she/he have done if she/he had found one?
2: She/he would've sat down.

If the student performs the other alternative, of course, all the questions (except the first) and answers are different.

This conditional perfect dialogue can be used in conjunction with the "will" future dialogue above.

Future perfect

1: Go into the theater and do some things in there. In fifteen seconds, what will you have done?
2: I will have gone into the theater, and I will have looked for a seat.
1: Is that all?
2: Yeah. I won't have watched the movie, and I won't have clapped yet.
1: Fine.

Tense-combination dialogues

Past perfect with conditional perfect

1: Choose one of these things and do something with it.
2: (Chooses)
1: Fine. Now, if you had chosen the ball instead, what would you have done?
2: (If I had chosen the ball instead,) I would have thrown it to you.
1: Okay. Go ahead and do it. . . . Great!

Future, future perfect, simple past, and past perfect

With pictures of a post office and a park on the wall and something to serve as a mailbox.

1: Listen. I'm going to walk to the park, over there. I want you to do these three things: Write a letter. Go to the post office. And mail the letter.
2: Okay.
1: Just a moment. By the time I get over there, what will you have done?

2: By the time you get over there, I will've written a letter. I'm not sure whether I will've gone to the post office and mailed the letter.
1: Okay. Let's try it.
2: Okay.
1: Now, let's see. What happened? By the time I got to the park, what had you done?
2: By the time you got over there, I had __________.

Nontense structure work

Three or more simple commands are practiced:

Go out to dinner. (With restaurant picture.)
Wipe off your desk.
Buy something.

Then the following simple dialogue:

1: What would you like to do?
2: I'd like to __________.

Nonstructural language

1. "Good idea!" (With wall pictures.)

   1: Let's go to the __________, okay?
   2: Good idea! Let's go!

2. "Is that all?" and "That's all."

   1: Count your ______s.
   2: 1, 2, . . .
   1: How many __________s have you got?
   2: ____________________.
   1: Is that all?
   2: Yeah, that's all.

Procedure for action dialogues

As in procedures for single commands and descriptions and for action series, the purpose of these procedures is to prepare students to work on their own in pairs, or in groups of three or four if the particular exercise requires. The procedures may be varied–some omitted, some repeated–just so the students end up adequately prepared to function on their own.

A. Listening (receptive stage)
   1. Setting up–introducing and reminding of names of objects and places (if necessary).

2. Re-introduction of commands–group and/or individuals responding physically to commands which are already familiar.
3. Introduction of new commands–commands which are part of the action dialogue introduced by the instructor (if necessary).
4. Demonstration of action–actions which precede or are part of the action dialogue are performed (if necessary).
5. Question and answer comprehension check–instructor asks questions and students respond as well as they can. This is mainly for aural comprehension.

B. Speaking (expressive stage)

6. Oral repetition of entire action dialogue. During oral repetition of entire action dialogue, students can follow on board, paper or in book. Unless very little or very familiar material is being used, this helps students to get things right. Cue pictures may also be used here.
7. Teacher-student practice (entire group)–teacher taking one part while the whole group takes the other, then switching roles. This step may be omitted.
8. Teacher-student practice (individuals)–pair•work between the instructor and individual students.
9. Pair work (one pair at a time)–practice between a few pairs of individuals with teacher monitoring and group observing.
10. Oral repetition again.
11. Pair work (entire group)–all students practice in pairs simultaneously. (See note at end of number nine in "Procedures for single commands and descriptions" on page 52.)
12. Written reinforcement–students may copy action dialogue if desired. This may come before or after number four as preferred. Or the teacher may dictate a version of the dialogue with words (in or out of order) in sight of students. The dictation helps students focus their attention on the sentence structure. For another alternative see number ten in "Procedures for single commands and descriptions" on page 52.
13. Oral repetition again.
14. Repeat pair work (entire group) students work in pairs simultaneously again.

The key to making action dialogues effective is the action. Make sure the action is happening and appropriate emotion and gestures are expressed as well as the participants can express them. This means there is much fuller communication and involvement than if learners are just reading. And it means they are more fully involved in using the language to communicate.

Action role-playing

In these freer exercises, only aspects of the situation are suggested. The students must have had sufficient practice with the vocabulary and structures which they need to communicate in their roles.

1. Both of you are about to go out and do some things. Talk to each other about what you're going to do. Then go out and do them and a few other things (in pantomime if necessary). Come back home and talk about what you did. (Pictures of places on wall and objects can be helpful.)
2. There are three people. Numbers One and Two run to the bus stop but just miss the bus that Number Three is driving. Apparently it's too late. They can't get to the places they were going to. They talk about what would and wouldn't have happened if they had caught the bus or hadn't missed it. Then, much to their surprise, Number Three drives up in the bus again and stops. They get on and go do the things they just said would happen. As in the above exercise, pantomime, wall pictures and objects may be used.

In a certain type of action role-playing, separate instructions are given to each of the participants:

3. The two students are given a number of objects to arrange on a table or desk. Neither one sees the written instructions which the other receives. One receives instructions to pile the objects up and get along well with the other one. The other is told to string the objects out and argue with the other one.

The above examples illustrate a framework for using TPR at any level to teach a wide variety of structures and vocabulary. TPR prepares students to perform role playing with fuller emotion and to converse freely either with a ready-made dialogue or one created by the students. TPR is "a 'happening' which is affecting their muscles and their senses. Totally experiencing the situation makes a strong impression and connects the words to something real, making learning much easier, more effective and more enjoyable for any student" (Romijn and Seely, 1982: ix). Whether students are beginning or advanced, TPR enables learners to feel comfortable interacting with others in a second language and builds confidence for using the language outside the classroom (see Asher, 1982: 47–48).

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Teaching Content and Teaching English for Specific Purposes

Harvey M. Taylor

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) can be defined as broadly or as narrowly as one wishes. Broadly speaking, every time a teacher of English as a Second Language (ESL) or of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaches a particular set of students and makes any curriculum or methodology adjustments which include content topics or activities which the students can use in the world outside the English classroom, this is a form of ESP teaching. If this is one's definition of ESP teaching, then each use of English to find out real-world content, rather than just for the sake of learning or practicing English, is an ESP activity for the student.

Today many general English teaching programs emphasize the use of the language to communicate thoughts, ideas, facts, concepts, etc. through the language–the "natural use" of language. Since this often involves "content teaching," each such program may be called an ESP program in this broad sense. However, this definition leaves us with no way to distinguish between English programs designed to develop broad, general proficiency in English and those with the goals normally associated with ESP programs: teaching the English associated with the performance of certain job-specific functions.

So far no one has come up with a definition of ESP which pleases everyone, yet everyone involved in ESP seems to know why they call their particular program or interest "ESP" and not just ESL or EFL. At the 1982 Convention of the Teachers of English

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to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) in Honolulu, the Special Interest Group interested in Teaching English to Foreign Students in English Speaking Countries sponsored an academic study session to examine problem areas in ESP. In the report on this session one of the topics discussed was sources of confusion involving ESP (Drobnic and Boys, 1982). Philip King reported on the results of a small group discussion of these sources:

> First of all, the field of activities that go under the general title of ESP is so varied that there may be very little in common between the different things that are going on at the extremes if you care to arrange them along a sort of spectrum. Beyond this, a lot of people who are working in ESP as teachers probably have a fairly limited range of experience. They tend to get into one area or one job or one place, and work with particular types of courses, to the exclusion of the other types of courses. Thus, in terms of confusion and perhaps overgeneralization, a term like EST (English for Science and Technology, one kind of ESP) will mean different things to different people. In most Latin American situations, and many people have been working there for years, you will tend to think of tertiary level reading comprehension courses. If you are working in an English speaking country (and I think Odette's [Boys] distinction between the English speaking and non-English speaking countries is probably one of the basic ones), then it will probably refer to a much wider range of activities, to say nothing of all the other variables. (Drobnic and Boys, 1982: 5)

In spite of this divergence among ESP practitioners regarding what ESP means to them, we still need to set some boundaries for this present discussion of ESP, and the first characteristic of a good definition is that it excludes those things which are different from what is being defined. In this case I want to exclude those general English programs whose goal is simply the teaching and learning of that portion of English which will enable a speaker of ESL/EFL to function in normal day-to-day contacts with other English speakers —such as when reading the newspaper, when listening to radio or TV newscasts, and when writing essential social communications. For me, however, ESP does include all English classes which attempt to prepare the learner to use the particular portion of the English language necessary to carry out a specific task.

To illustrate, a beginning-level, first-day class in a general ESL/EFL class might focus on the English used for greeting the teacher and other classmates properly—a specific task, and therefore technically a kind of ESP–with "Good morning, Mr. Taylor," "Good morning, Taro," as a prescribed exchange. I would rather exclude this from my definition of ESP, since even though it is an exchange which occurs in an academic setting (and would therefore be part of EAP, English for Academic Purposes), it is also part of the normal day-to-day interaction of all English speakers everywhere.

On the other hand, an ESP course for bank employees will include general English greetings, but will also include the proper way to greet an English-speaking customer ("Good morning. May I help you?"). A course for stewardesses will include some of the same English ("Good morning"), but will probably include something more specific to the task ("Welcome aboard flight 670 for Hong Kong"). If we were writing a course in ESP for oil pipeline laborers, we might decide to omit the study of greetings altogether, since there is nothing particularly specific in oil-workers' greetings which must be taught for them to perform their expected tasks. However, if an American supervisor shows up for his job every morning and receives no greeting, or if his "Good morning" is not at least echoed, he may feel that his crew does not like him, that they are not friendly, or that there is a problem with their wages, working conditions, and so on. If ESP is the language necessary to carry out a specific task, how far into cross-cultural and interpersonal differences do we go in deciding what is essential to set the proper emotional tone for the English interaction being taught? If we cannot answer this precisely, at least we need to be aware of this potential problem area.

So far our discussion of an ESP definition has included not only the words but also the actual person-to-person interaction of ESP tasks. At times some publishers put out ESP materials which end up being used solely for student-to-book interaction. The student may pick up hundreds of new vocabulary items from the text and may manipulate considerable grammar in paper-and-pen exercises on paper–often the same grammar taught and practiced in the same way in general EFL classes and books. Yet materials such as these may be little more than a general English grammar book with the substitution of vocabulary which appears to be associated with the field of work or study being targeted for ESP. This "little more," however, does have a real motivational advantage over general EFL texts which limit their vocabulary to everyday English, namely that the learner feels that more than "just English" is being learned, and thus is more motivated to learn what appears to be more relevant to his/her specific work goals.

Unfortunately ESP is not just–and perhaps not even primarily –the learning of pertinent vocabulary. Even if the vocabulary used in such a textbook has been well chosen for its frequency of occurrence and its potential usefulness (which it may not have been in any scientific way), the grammar included for manipulation and learning may have no clear relationship to the specific field. Certain types of scientific writing, for example, include the nonspecific-agent passive ("When the compound is heated . . .") much more frequently than does a narrative of action, such as many ESL/EFL readings frequently use. Only a beginning has been made in finding out what kinds of sentences, phrases, and idioms, in addition to specific vocabulary, occur most frequently in some of the job fields where English ability is needed. (See Salager, 1980 for an example of the type of research necessary.)

For example, what about spoken commands in ESP? Since most ESL/EFL courses are either reading-centered or have dialogues which are unrealistically polite for normal conversation, the student rarely gets a clear grasp of the kinds and uses of commands in English. In certain job situations, however, the English learner works as an assistant to a native speaker of English or is receiving on-the-job training from someone else who interacts with him or her in English. In such work roles an understanding of commands is essential. But do we know whether the imperative form is used most frequently on oil pipeline work? ("Kip, hand me that wrench, will ya?") Or are grammatically less direct command forms used most of the time, such as indirect requests? ("Kip, I need a wrench.") In written text the grammatical imperative form is seldom called for, so students learning ESL/EFL *or* ESP from a narrative-type textbook will get little exposure to that form in actual use, though it will probably be introduced as a grammar point and manipulated in some sort of drill somewhere in the book. Even indirect requests (rather than reported requests) are rare except in speech and letters.

Yet, for an ESP student to learn to recognize and properly use commands and requests, such requests must appear in natural reading and listening settings somewhere in the course. Not only must the student learn the form of the imperative and the shape of the many indirect requests, but it is also crucial that the student understand the differences in the feelings and emotions being communicated by at least the major command/request types. For example, each of these carries a different interpersonal signal:

> I need a wrench.
> Got a wrench?
> Can ya hand me that wrench?
> Hand me the wrench.
> Gimme the wrench.

It seems to me, at least, that if the general intonation stays the same, the first couple of expressions are less insistent than the later ones; they also seem to express more person-to-person equality than the others. The last two indicate irritation or urgency or superiority, or all three. A co-worker will need to be aware of these nuances in order to know how to get and hand the wrench properly: Is it a take-your-time situation or an emergency? Do our ESP materials present the *language* which is needed for efficient task-related functioning, or do they only offer a sprinkled frosting of ESP vocabulary? If our materials do omit training in some aspects of the ESP communication process, is it by chance or by design? Are omissions based on a prior determination of what is essential, of what is only valuable, and of what is merely interesting? This sort of determination of priorities needs to be done not only for vocabulary and grammar but also for the other areas which influence communication in a foreign language.

Fortunately some of the newer ESP books and courses have been developed around the communication of specific ideas ("notions") or of specific interpersonal transactions ("functions"), and therefore have included some of the interpersonal aspects of language which do not appear in books and courses written primarily to introduce English grammar and job-specific vocabulary. However, some of the widely advertised ESP textbooks still give the potential purchaser no information about the assumptions or research (if any) which may have guided their authors in the choice of what to include in or to exclude from these books. This makes it mandatory for the user to be very critical in selecting materials—and to be very productive in providing other activities or materials to bridge gaps in the books in use.

At the 1982 TESOL Convention session on ESP, the discussion of ESP resulted in the following, as reported by David Wyatt:

> Regarding the textbook problem, first of all, we were surprisingly in agreement as to the very poor coverage of most EST [English for Science and Technology] textbooks of the basic communicative features of the language of science. We felt that that was a very valid problem and that research would help to solve that kind of problem to some extent. . . . There was a fairly consistent feeling that there was not enough variety in the ESP exercise material, that ESP exercise material, heaven forbid, is boring in many cases and that a good deal could be done to improve the actual quality of the exercises without worrying about the quantity so much. In fact, one of our members pointed out that it may be an advantage to have the basic minimum of exercise material in an ESP text because no ESP text is likely to be exactly what you need, and what it may provide you with is a nucleus around which to build exercises which are more specifically suitable for your students and situation. . . . We agreed . . . that textbooks are very poor in supplementary features, things like review units, appendices, dictionaries, and glossaries. We felt that those would be very useful, and they are indeed usually lacking from ESP textbooks. . . .
>
> Another major point that we discussed in terms of textbooks was that by its very nature, ESP is a discipline in which any particular course must be very well adapted or should be very well adapted to the needs of the group of students. As such, it is intrinsically less likely to be tranferable to any other specific situation. In a sense we are cutting our own throats. The better our particular ESP course is in a particular situation, the poorer it's likely to be in any other specific situation which is different from the original situation. . . . The last thing we would expect would be an off-the-shelf textbook which would satisfy our needs.
>
> (Drobnic and Boys, 1982: 7-8)

It appears, then, that it is unlikely that we will find an ESP text around which we can build an effective course for doing all of the things which need to be done to prepare our students for their job-specific language needs. If we do use a text, we will need to supplement and modify the course each time it is taught–and not just a little bit. What other options are open for providing the necessary student exposure to the language needed for effective on-the-job communication with an English-speaking specialist?

Content and language teaching

Not only is ESP in general hard to define, it is also hard for the teacher to know how much of the total language of a specific type of ESP should be taught. There is one way in use that teaches English to people who need that language to perform a specific job.

It involves the teaching in English of the task-specific subject matter—or at least certain selected parts of it—as information, not as language, to be learned by the student. These courses have been called *content courses* as distinct from *language courses*.

This distinction between content and language courses will be a problem, however, if nonlanguage teachers assume that students "learn something" only in a content course and do nothing but "language practice" in a language course. For our purposes here a content course will be one in which students primarily learn information about the world and are tested on their ability to recall and use that information in specified ways. Our ESP courses do not normally teach knowledge about English (that's linguistics, a content subject); English language courses have as their main purpose learning to use English as a vehicle for transferring information. A content course teaches information; a language course develops a channel for passing on information.

Occasionally an ESP course will be developed which has a dual goal: to teach the language of the specific job and also to teach how to do the job—a combination of language and content. Rarely does such a course teach either good language or good content. If the language is familiar enough for the students to understand the new concepts, then little language is learned; if the language is new enough to require learning, then the concepts are not clearly understood because of misunderstandings of the language. If both language and content are really new to the students, then neither is learned. Rarely does one find clearly stated objectives for such a combination course; if they existed, they would be rarely achievable.

True content courses in an ESP program can not only teach task-specific content but these courses can also facilitate the learning of the particular English appropriate and usually necessary for teaching that content itself.

Stephen Krashen calls these sorts of courses "sheltered subject matter" courses, in which the content, not the language is taught, and the students are tested on the subject matter and not on the language. "Sheltered subject matter teaching differs from ordinary subject matter teaching in that participation in such classes is limited to second language acquirers" (Krashen, 1982: 2).

This concept of teaching a subject matter course to second language learners has rarely been considered. Instead, traditional

ESP teaching has merely taken a normal EFL course and made it look like ESP by adding to it some subject matter–but not primarily for the purpose of teaching that content as information. For example, in ESP drills on the formation and use of the English past tense to be used in an English for Business and Economics (EBE) program, the only truly EBE part may be the use of some business terms. Such drills may look like either of the following exercises:

Exercise 1: *Directions:* Change each sentence to the past tense by writing any necessary new forms for the verbs.

1. We will complete fabrication of your components.
2. Shipment will be made on August 15.
3. We will meet your delivery date.
4. If you do not receive the order, telephone me.

Exercise 2: *Directions:* This is from a business letter. Make today's date August 28, and rewrite the verbs in this paragraph to make it an explanation of what your company has already done.

We will complete the fabrication of the first half of your ordered components by August first. Shipment will be made on August 15 in order to meet your delivery date of August 25. If you do not receive the order then, please telephone me personally.

The second exercise is more "realistic" in that an EBE student will recognize it immediately as a business-oriented task. The first is not so realistic, and therefore is less apt to be interesting to the student. Yet neither exercise is teaching the content of business. The busy student can ignore all of the business vocabulary items and still get all the answers correct just from a knowledge of how to do grammar drills–these are both grammar manipulation exercises. Anyone who knows how to change future and present tense forms to past forms (and who recognizes English verbs) can do Exercise 1. The second exercise does require a bit more knowledge of the interrelationships of the English tenses, but this is only general EFL knowledge, not ESP. Although more realistic practice of the English of Business and Economics such as is found in Exercise 2 would improve many existing EBE materials, a business content course would demonstrate the real use of English to teach business.

Modified-language content courses

Modified content teaching has been around a long time in ESL/EFL–and in ESP. Every time students receive selections to listen to or passages to read and then are to answer questions to test their comprehension of the information learned, they are being tested on their understanding of the content. The ESL/EFL rationale for testing comprehension of content is that we believe we find out how well the students use the appropriate listening or reading skill to obtain their information about the content. We try to make this test of language use as fair as possible by selecting a topic which is equally unknown to all of the students (thus no one will be able to answer the questions from previous study of the topic in their own language).

Although we use this technique, we rarely just record a selection from a radio commentary, nor do we take a paragraph from a current magazine for the test selection. Instead, we usually modify the language in whatever we find, or we carefully write our own simplified version. Why all this work? To be sure that the test is not too difficult for these particular students. Unmodified material is used, if at all, to test only the most advanced students.

Thus the use of content material with modified language to test language has a long and honored history in second language testing. Modified language is also regularly used by every experienced second language teacher, all of us modify the language of our classroom administrative directions, resulting in what has been called "teacher talk" in ESL/EFL. Only a first-time EFL teacher would say to a low-level class, "Isn't it about time for class to start? O.K.? I wanna begin with some o' the sentences in Unit 3, on page 26." The message–the content–is supposed to be something like, "Let's begin. Turn to page 26," and that is the way experienced EFL teachers know they would have to phrase this message for a low-level class. We normally modify our classroom instructions so we can be sure that all the students understand our directions. This is one kind of modification of the language used to express a message, to teach content–on-the-spot modification.

The first-time overseas tourist who resorts to louder and louder talking ("If they don't understand my English, it must be their ears!") also uses shorter words in an attempt to facilitate understanding–and ends up using more idioms. The overseas teacher, on the other hand, may avoid slang, may use more literary or formal vocabulary even in conversation ("They will be punished," rather than, "They're gonna get it when they get home"), may pronounce everything more precisely, and (together with the tourist) will usually speak slower while gesturing (wildly). Communication generally does take place.

Even to relatively low-level English learners, a content course can be taught entirely in English if the language is modified enough—and if the students already have a knowledge of the basic concepts of the topic from previous studies in their own language. In a modified-language course a balance between the familiar and the new must be maintained. If too much new content is being taught in the new language, there will not be sufficient general conversation for low-level English students, and they will be frustrated. Either new language telling familiar information, or familiar language telling new ideas—one or the other should be the norm in a modified-language content course.

If the language being used to teach content courses can be modified *without* distorting the language—the grammar, the vocabulary, the pronunciation, the speech style—then second language acquisition can occur while the content is being learned. This is the combined purpose of teaching content in an ESP program. Krashen argues that teachers can promote the processes which are involved in students' natural acquisition of a second language by surrounding them with that language at an appropriate level of difficulty. They pick up whatever they are ready to learn of the language and about the language from what is happening around them in that language. He makes a technical distinction between language *learning* and language *acquisition*. For him the role of language input (the language surrounding the language learner) is more important than that of language teaching (what is actively taught of the language) in a student's mastery of a new language (Krashen, 1979).

Besides modifying the language of a low-level English content course in order to facilitate comprehension, the teacher can use charts, diagrams, pictures, and other visuals—all of which are very commonly used in most of the subject areas where ESP teaching is involved. These can teach basic content even while the lecturer uses some English vocabulary and grammar which has not yet been overtly taught, much less acquired by the students.

It does not appear to take any really special training for a lecturer to modify the language of the presentation to fit the hearers' abilities. For over one hundred years this has been done by church school teachers; they have modified the Shakespearean English of the Authorized Version of the English Bible for English-speaking children while using pictures and other visual aids to get the meaning across. In the process not only have these children learned the basic set of Bible stories, but many have unconsciously acquired the ability to understand and even speak (especially in prayers) archaic vocabulary and grammatical forms ("whithersoever thou goest") with absolutely no teaching of these forms. If these thousands of volunteer, generally untrained teachers have been able to modify their language well enough for five or more generations of children to learn the basic set of Bible stories, it should be easy for trained educators to modify at least some topics in business, biology, calculus, or culture for their ESP students.

If, however, these content courses are to be used not only to teach content but also to provide language input for language acquisition, the language used must not be distorted. What the student hears and reads must in itself be good English even though it may not have all the jargon or all of the sentence types normally found in a college lecture. As the second language student concentrates on the information being learned from these modified-language lectures and readings, the English appropriate to that area of specialization is also being heard and read. Necessary vocabulary appears in context, and will likely be remembered if it is important this time around for comprehending the content. If new vocabulary is not necessary for comprehension this time, at least there has been a first exposure to it, and when it appears again (as all truly basic vocabulary does in any subject area), it may be acquired at that time or at a subsequent time. A good lecturer or writer, of course, will normally in the process of explaining any basic or new concept define or give synonyms for words that are crucial for understanding that concept, and this is even more important in an ESP content course.

Some ESL/EFL teachers have objected to the "waste of time" of such courses in a second language program. Wouldn't the time be better spent "teaching English?" Admittedly, if the language of the modified course is so difficult that it discourages the students, if they don't understand the concepts being explained, then it is a waste of time. In addition, some students or groups of students, such as many Chinese, have little tolerance for unknown vocabulary. Their educational background has conditioned them to feel guilty whenever they do not totally master whatever is being taught or even made available to them. These students may be so concerned about the words they are "missing" from the lecture or reading selection that they cannot concentrate on the perfectly evident main ideas which are the focus of the communication and which other students with even less apparent English ability are grasping. For these students there will have to be either further modification of the language or else special help so they can learn to cope with their frustrations; otherwise the time will really be wasted for them.

Integrated content and language courses

One apparently ideal arrangement is to combine the teaching of content with the use of some of the language study skills the students will need in order to fulfill a requirement of a content course, such as combining the writing of a term paper with a management course, or combining rapid reading skills with the reading of long homework assignments in any course. However, in a general ESL/EFL program it is often difficult to find a content subject to use which will be of interest to each student. For example, only a few students would take a content course in English literature or in linguistics or in space exploration or in international trade with any degree of personal interest.

On the other hand, all EFL students do need to learn certain study skills. These are usually taught as part of one or another language course, even though they are not actually language itself. These are study skills such as taking notes from lectures, reading different types of materials efficiently, using correct letter-writing format, writing legibly and on the lines, and so on. Although these are not part of language, they are knowledge about the proper use of language. The common solution for including these study skills in programs in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is for these to be taught in a separate study skills course or in a simulated term-paper writing course or as part of a regular reading or writing or speaking class–to integrate these skills into an existing ESL/EFL class. If, however, there is a content course which all of the students are taking together, the teachers of such study skills courses can provide assignments, practice, correction, tests, etc. which draw on the content just taught by the content teacher. For most ESL/EFL/ESP students there is only one content area other than study skills which has been attractive, a course which teaches American life and culture (if it is American English which is being taught).

Another type of integration begins by including content vocabulary and other materials in language practice materials, as is done in must ESP textbooks. If this can be tied in with an existing content course, then we have course integration as well as content information which students want to learn. For example, at the Economics Institute (University of Colorado) in our lower- and mid-level reading programs, sentences from a standard college economics reader (which was later read by all students) were used to illustrate and to practice various reading attack skills. This was not much different from adding economics vocabulary to an existing EFL program at these levels. (James Ramsay is further improving and developing this approach in a forthcoming book, tentatively titled *Basic Skills for Academic Reading.*)

At the Institute for International Economic Management, a further example of integration of content and study skills has been worked out under the auspices of the UCLA China Exchange Program in Beijing. Two ESP-EBE teachers (Bobbie Dempsey and Michael Martin) and one management lecturer (Cindy Lindsay) integrated six hours a week of advanced EFL and a ten-hour-per-week management course. Each of the EFL writing class assignments focused on a different English rhetorical style: cause and effect, time sequence, and so on. The topic for each such writing assignment was chosen by the management lecturer from that week's lecture, but the topic was such that it could be best developed only by using the assigned rhetorical device.

Group discussion techniques were also taught in this EFL class and then applied in the assigned management class discussion groups. The EFL teachers and the management lecturer gave separate grades for each composition and each discussion. The former graded the language and rhetoric used while the latter graded the presentation of content and use of management techniques. The process for developing such an integrated course was exhausting for the teachers (incredibly detailed planning was necessary, with last-minute adjustments as the lecturer changed her pace to accommodate student needs). It was traumatic at first for the students (mid-career Chinese) because of the nature of the content classes. For many it was the first time they were required to formulate a personal opinion and support it in public using Western rhetorical rules of logical development and argument. It was extremely effective in terms of both the management content learned and the level of English expertise the students took with them at the end of that ten weeks of integrated study. (Four groups of between thirty-five and fifty students went through this program in 1980-81 when it was offered.) This sort of integrated approach works well when there is a single-topic ESP program, such as this one—organizational behavior—and when all of the students are sufficiently interested in one topic which can become the content course.

But what about the situation where there are ESP students who come from different disciplines studying in the same English classes? For these it is often difficult if not impossible to subdivide the ESP classes so that all of the medical students are separate from the physicists, from the chemists, and so on for English and with each group attending an appropriate content course. If all the students are from the natural sciences, then perhaps a general natural science course can be taught and integrated with a natural science ESP component. The degree of integration which will be possible in any given ESP program will depend primarily upon the uniformity of the students' subject interests. Secondarily, it will depend upon available and interested faculty, materials, and time.

Content couses supported by language courses

An alternative to integrated courses may lie in teaching content courses—unmodified regular academic courses—in which ESP students enroll as regular credit students, but with special ESP classes to help them in doing the reading and writing required for those courses. If there are enough students at the same general level of English enrolled in a particular content course, then an English section can be arranged which will provide these students with necessary English support. These supporting ESP classes will need teachers who are able to attend the content course or otherwise cooperate with the content teacher in getting information on the content and English use which make up the course. This arrangement differs from an integrated program in that the content teacher does not modify the content course in any way because of the presence of non-native speakers in the course.

Such an arrangement has been used at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA). Christopher W. Bernbrock discussed this in "Linking ESL Classes with Courses in Other Disciplines: The Adjunct Concept in English for Academic Purposes" (Bernbrock, 1979b). The English course is considered to be an adjunct to the content course. Bernbrock and Martha Pierce have since developed a similar adjunct course at the 1981-82 UCLA-supported EBE program in China mentioned above. They have taught from a standard college-level English writing text the use of English rhetorical devices to support the students' reading and writing assignments for a concurrently taken business management lecture course taught by Wayne Brockbank. This arrangement has been possible only since all of the students were enrolled in both courses.

If there are not enough students at the same level of English taking the same content courses, then no such close support is possible for the individual content courses. However, every English for Academic Purposes program is, in a sense, a before-the-fact adjunct or support program in that students are learning before they enter regular university courses how to analyze what they will later read in those courses, what skills they will need to write term papers or theses, and how to carry on a discussion in a class or seminar. Unfortunately students in an EAP program who know what field they will do their university work in often feel they are wasting their time if their English reading and writing practice is in a subject area they know they will not study after they leave the EAP program. Yet it is impossible to provide subject-specific reading material and writing assignments that will interest everyone—or is it?

For purposes of ultimate mastery of English, it makes no real difference whether EAP students learn cause and effect or term paper format while writing about chemistry or history or anything else. However, it does make a great deal of difference, as mentioned above, in the individual student's motivation to do that reading or to write that practice term paper. If it is not possible for students to do homework for subject-specific content classes, then at least advanced students can be guided to use the library (if there is one) or even back issues of news magazines to find subject-relevant materials. For less-skilled students the burden will rest on the teachers or curriculum developers to provide a file of appropriate content material, no single textbook is apt to be sufficient.

"The task of the language teacher is to help students to see how the sentences of English are used to realize the conventions of discourse in their own academic discipline or occupation. This involves much more than simply selecting authentic field-specific or job-specific instructional materials at the appropriate level for use in the classroom—it involves the ability of the teacher to create an atmosphere there that is as life-like as possible so that genuine communication can take place. The role of the teacher would be to provide assistance and feedback as needed and required, diagnose their communication problems, and plan remedial language repair sessions" (Bernbrock, 1979a: 21–22).

At the Economics Institute, a complete four-level series of content courses for foreign students is taught (either live, or by video when enrollment is too low) in college-level mathematics, statistics, micro-economic theory, and macro-economic theory, plus other courses in business: use of computers, business practices, etc. None of these courses is supported in the EBE courses which are often taken concurrently, except in the sense that the general English of economics (vocabulary, grammar, writing styles) is the focus. Once students reach a minimum level of listening proficiency, they take a mathematics course taught in English as a content course, with only minimal language modifications. As their English abilities improve, they take other content courses, until at the end of their program they are taking only content courses. This gradual progression from all EBE to all content has proved highly successful for twenty-five years in preparing foreign students to study in graduate schools of economics in English-speaking countries. Its one drawback is the expense involved in providing the necessary content courses of five to ten weeks duration so that students can move from their EAP-EBE courses into content courses gradually but as soon as they are ready. Mathematics has needed less English proficiency than has statistics, which in turn has required less than the theory courses.

An alternative

One solution to this problem of finding content materials which are topic-specific enough to please EAP and other ESP students, yet which can be integrated into or supported by an EFL program may lie in finding a broader, less specific topic which will appeal to a wide range of students because they are interested in that content as information. If no direct tie-in can be worked out between the content course and the English ones, then the students can still take the content course for its benefits in their acquisition of language, and the EFL curriculum can ignore the content of that other course; the students will still end up with more proficiency in English this way than if they take no content course, provided their English ability is good enough to grasp what is going on in the content course.

At the 1982 TESOL Convention a paper was presented by two faculty members from the other UCLA China Exchange Program in Beijing, which is an English for Science and Technology (EST) program at the Chinese Academy of Sciences (see Frelick and van Naerssen, 1982). They discussed their "cultural orientation to the relevant foreign scientific community" for students–scientists going abroad. They point out the following: "Even though scientists around the world can study the same phenomena of nature, the way they approach problems may differ for they are based on ways of thinking that are shaped to a large extent by their cultures through educational systems, philosophies and political systems. Scientists going to work for an extended period of time (one year or more) in another society need a special kind of orientation that is generally not a part of traditional culture courses. EST programs need to provide this specialized information in addition to language and general culture for scholars going abroad" (Frelick and van Naerssen, 1982: 1).

They divided their professional cultural orientation program into three types of training: "1. Knowledge about/awareness of the foreign scientific culture, 2. Experience in the foreign scientific culture through simulated events in a foreign language setting, and 3. Participation in a content course as a means of combining the first two basic types of training" (1982: 2). Of interest here is that their content course, "An Introduction to the Western Philosophy of Science," in which students experience this approach while taking the course, is the message being taught. The students learn that "Western philosophy is based on the principle of Agnosticism or Skepticism" while experiencing the application of this principle in the way the course is taught (1982: 6). The authors go on to say that "since the knowledge of the content [of this course] is of somewhat limited value [since these scientists "will not engage in lengthy philosophical debates with their Western colleagues"] . . . the experiencing of the philosophical approach in the content classroom is an important aspect of the course" (1982: 10).

Thus a content course as part of an EAP program can prepare students for overseas study–if that is part of the program's goal–by giving them actual experience, in addition to the possibility of providing them with language input that will facilitate their acquisition of English. "Just as learning the rules about a language does not necessarily prepare a person for using the language effectively, so knowledge about a particular approach to research and education is not the same as working through the process empirically" (1982: 10). For these scientists from diverse disciplines, this single-topic content course together with a special lecture series and films cover specific aspects of American academic and general culture. These also provide further listening practice with some assignments tied in with the reading course, the writing course, or the speaking course.

One general topic akin to the above which has had considerable appeal as a content course for students from or in most countries and at every level of English is the culture of the country whose language is being learned. At the Economics Institute the author arranged and taught a series of lectures on American culture to expose the students to extended listening practice–to listen to an hour-long lecture on a topic for which they had not done any prior reading from a textbook (as they did for their economics courses). A few writing assignments were integrated with some of the lectures at certain levels to motivate students to attend and take notes.

This series was very effective for some students by exposing them to items of American culture they found new and useful. They also appreciated hearing a variety of dialects and speech styles. However, during one term a large segment of relatively Westernized students from Latin America said they found little new information which would make the lectures worth their time. The focus was then changed to a series of economics lectures by invited university faculty members. But only the students with the most advanced English and a reasonable background in economic theory profited from this series, even though an attempt was made to provide the students with a list of crucial vocabulary and a skeleton outline for each lecture ahead of time.

For the past two years the UCLA China Exchange Program at the Institute of International Economic Management has given EBE and management content instruction–which for 1981-82 was to prepare Chinese to negotiate foreign contracts. A curriculum has been developed to meet the perceived and stated needs of these students for some knowledge of those aspects of American culture which would enable them to negotiate contracts as effectively as possible with American business people. Since these courses have been taught by EFL professionals, certain ESP-EBE objectives have been incorporated into the curriculum.

First, the lectures (and accompanying documentary films and videos) have provided extensive listening practice for the students—something not available in the hours allotted to the normal listening program. Note-taking from lectures and short-essay writing were also included. Otherwise, the course has been taught as a college-level course, in theory at least. When the students assigned to the course turned out to be less advanced than those who took it the previous year, the teacher (the author) automatically resorted to modified language in the lectures; the reading material was not simplified, even though it was not specifically written for EFL readers.

The homework reading load for this course had been deliberately kept heavy by Chinese standards (five to ten pages per class hour) for the original advanced classes in order to force the students to use the more efficient reading skills introduced in their language skills classes: skimming for main ideas, skipping redundant or illustrative material, taking reading notes, etc. In addition, for these advanced students the lectures were delivered in nearly normal college-lecture style (except that they were probably a bit better organized and contained less ad-libbing because of time constraints). An overhead projector was used for writing main points or special vocabulary as they occurred. Occasionally charts and other illustrative materials were prepared for OHP use in advance. Unfortunately, as students with lower English abilities moved into the upper levels of the program, much more modification of the course was necessary. This included extensive outlines of the lectures for either pre-study or post-study to reduce the extreme anxiety of so many whose note-taking inabilities left them with little of the content to study for examinations. As the pace of oral delivery was found to be too fast for note-taking, more pauses and illustrations were added to allow the hands to catch up. An attempt was made to keep the oral presentation at normal speed and with normal intonation in order to provide as authentic an environment for language acquisition as was possible under the circumstances. This was a classic case of a content course—even a modified-language one—in which the admitted students had too low a level of English and study skills abilities to take the course as originally planned and taught. By accommodating the course to the abilities of the students, the instructor was still able to meet the overall goals of the course, even though some material was omitted along the way.

This culture course was integrated in one direct way with another ESP course in the program. Together with the management course referred to above, this course provided topics for an advanced Public Speaking course which was taken by all of these students. Thus the content from these two content courses became the source for speaking activities in an ESP speaking course. This was not true integration, however, since there was no attempt to prepare the students for their speeches by either of the content teachers, nor were the topics chosen because they were main points in the content lectures–they were chosen because they could be talked about for three minutes.

We have looked at English for Specific Purposes and seen some ways in which different content courses have been joined with an ESP program to produce benefits which are unlikely to be achieved by limiting ESP courses to just language-centered courses. Yet in the cases cited here, these courses are part of an ESP program precisely because they provide the student with a total second language environment in which the entire focus is on learning content.

Insofar as possible, if the subject matter can be closely related to the career goals of the students, it will have a greater appeal as a "real" class than will something seen as irrelevant. Even if the student population is too diverse to allow such targeting of courses, an alternate course topic may still be found which is sufficiently interesting to provide this essential language acquisition environment. It is worth the search for such a topic, and it is worth the effort to teach such a course (even after having taught eight such courses to as many different groups of students over the past two years in China). Former students return from negotiating sessions in China aglow with how valuable this one course has been to them. They think it is because they learned so many "facts" about American culture; I believe it is much more because in that course they had to learn to study and think in English as their American negotiating counterparts did–there was cross-cultural communication.

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Modern Language Association

Joan Lindgren

Water in a bowl, a heap
of masa, corn dough
a borrowed electric griddle
is all they require. The Mexican girls
have consented to teach us to make tortillas
Slightly officious, they sweep away chalk dust
from the schoolroom table, spread it with coarse
paper towels. Girls in a gaggle nudge and whisper
they coo in their lisping Spanish
mas aqui, donde quieres, ayi?–they set up
a station of slap-dash order.

In the opposite corner, like children
too shy to leave home to come to a party
the Laotian boys resist kinesthetic learning
balky, unwieldy, they copy the words from the blackboard
again and again: Roll Knead Squeeze Pat
Spatula Corn dough Pancake. With our lips
and our tongues and our hands in the air
we have practiced them over and over

Sofia presides. Soccorro
is second in charge. Elastic,
the dough is slapped and caressed
like the cheeks of a baby's behind
the girls leave off their giggles
serious now with deft hands they lapse
into the rhythm of the work of their mothers
and grandmothers. Quiet and proud and steady
they knead and slap with perfect gestures
listo, bueno, ahora e listo . . . Spanish
drifts out the window into the afternoon

Joan Lindgren has taught ESL for eighteen years. She is co-author of Prentice Hall's *English for Adult Competency*.

smooth masa, soft dough
little puffs of soft corn dough
soft as the skin of a sister's baby
smooth as the arms of a first girlfriend
soft as the air of a jungle night in Laos
soft as the eyes of these fawn-like boys
who have swum the Mekong and lost their brothers

Roll Knead Squeeze Pat
smooth masa soft corn dough
lulled, then pulled by the beat
the boys begin to cross over
Samlanh, Siphasiane, Amhka
one by one, yielding at last
to the steady beat of rhythmic slapping
and patting of the hands of the girls
steady as the course of the earth
on its Friday path through time

soft masa, smooth corn dough
the girls pull off little puffs
of soft corn dough, silently place them
into the palms of the boys who begin
the motions: roll knead squeeze pat
with hands as deft as the girls they work
the little puffs of soft corn dough
smooth as the hands of their lovers
left behind in Ventiane city
soft as the skin of their mothers' faces
they tenderly form the dough into pancakes
the memory of love alive in their eyes

Under the gaze of the Mexican girls
quiet now, busy, their eyes lowered
greasing the griddle, they dab
press, turn the pancakes
under the gaze of the Mexican girls
who have given birth to the afternoon
the Laotian boys, clapping and patting
with their slender, shy, brown hands
are making perfect tortillas.

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Bright Ideas

A Thirty-Clue Mystery—The Barlow Case: A Method for Semi-Free Discussion

Michael J. Kleindl

My students rarely have a chance to use the English they already know in a free yet productive manner. I've found an exercise which allows them to do this and have fun at the same time. It was adapted from a game in the book *Learning Discussion Skills Through Games* by Gene Stanford and Barbara Dodds Stanford. Although not originally designed for ESL students, this type of exercise can easily be used in the ESL classroom. It's a mystery-solving exercise where all the clues are handed out to the class, but each student is given only a few clues. Because every clue in the mystery is important, every student must participate. And they participate without the teacher prompting them. The exercise is an excellent way for the students to recycle grammar structures, to practice Wh-questions, to improve organizational skills, and to use naturally gambits of interrupting, disagreeing, making suggestions, and so on. In addition, the students find the lesson very interesting. Usually after that day's allotted time period, and when it's time to take a break, the students still continue to discuss possible motives, check the time schedules, or draw maps. The exercise also seems to build group spirit because everyone's idea or suggestion is asked for and listened to. And most of all it's fun!

I wrote this mystery with several things in mind. First of all, I wanted to make it interesting. Second, I wanted to incorporate specific grammar structures into the clues, e.g., passives, and also concepts such as time relationships, descriptions, cause and effect, and reported speech. Finally, during the solving process I wanted the students to practice summarizing information and using conditionals—"If" sentences and unreal conditions. Because

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I was teaching a class of businessmen at the time, vocabulary that was slightly business-oriented was chosen.

The Barlow Case was written for a class of eight intermediate students, but I imagine that any number of students between six and thirty could use it. It's a little difficult and it took four forty-minute periods for the students to solve the mystery. Other mysteries have taken less time. One beginning class finished a simpler mystery with less clues and less information in only one hour. You can adjust the difficulty of the mystery by adjusting the complexity and number of clues. Type all the clues onto file cards—one clue to a card—and you're ready to begin.

Procedure

Explain to the students that they must solve a murder. They must find the murderer, the time, the place, and the motive. Every clue is important in solving the mystery. In the Barlow Case there are many more questions to answer; for example, "What is the relationship between Peters and Mrs. Barlow? What is the relationship between Anderson and Peters? Who was embezzling and why?" In other words, finding the murderer is not enough.

After an explanation of the goals, hand out an equal number of cards to each student. Because my classes consist usually of seven or eight students, each receives four or five clues. There is usually some time spent explaining vocabulary at this point. Tell them that, other than answering vocabulary questions, you will not give any assistance. The students must solve everything on their own. Make it clear that the students can read the information aloud as often as they like. They can also paraphrase or summarize the clues. However, the only rule is that they cannot show their clues to anyone else. All information must be given orally. I assign a chairman to head the class then I step back and let them at it. During the discussion I don't correct errors unless there is a drastic problem. Usually the other students will clarify or ask for repetition if there is a misunderstanding. While the students are busy talking, I note the problems they're having with certain structures or concepts for possible follow-up activities later. I also make sure that they interrupt or disagree politely. There is a sheet of butcher paper with various gambits on it that I merely point to in order to remind the students to interact politely. I give them a time limit of forty minutes and collect the cards at the end. The cards are numbered so that I can return the same cards the next day to each student. At the end of each period, I will tell the students if they are on the right track or not. Other than that they must decide for themselves based on their deductions. After the students have solved the mystery, including explaining the motives and actions of all the main characters, I have them work in small groups to write a summary of the story. Besides that and the possible follow-up activities later, I see this lesson as self-contained.

The students usually go through several stages in solving the mystery. The first day the students are often lost because they expect help from me. When they realize that I will do nothing, they then slowly start to organize themselves. The first day usually consists of random reading of clues, and is generally chaotic. The second day the students begin to organize a little. They may start to list the characters or begin to make a time chart. The third day is more organizational work with only clues about one person or only clues relating to time being read. The fourth day the students finally discover the murderer and the motive. However, in the Barlow Case there is a lot more to be explained and the students were interested enough to continue for two more days to completely explain everything. Of course, it's very difficult to predict exactly how long it will take the class to solve the mystery and these stages should be considered as only a rough guide. The mystery could be solved on the first or second day, if your class is really sharp.

Finally, I'd like to give you some clues on how to write your own mystery. I must confess that I'm a detective story fanatic and have always wanted to be a mystery writer. So I had a lot of fun writing the Barlow Case. I tried to make it realistic, a little clever and challenging. However, it wasn't easy. You should first choose a plot, and think the story out completely. If necessary, make a time table so you know where all your characters are at the appropriate times. Make sure that all clues are important. If you write in a lie, make sure you provide a clue that negates the lie. When you're finished, test out the mystery on several native speakers to make sure it is solvable with those clues. And before you give it to the students, mix up the clues so that no student has too much of one type of information. The Barlow clues are arranged in this way. If you're interested in using a simpler mystery, there are two in the book by the Stanfords which I mentioned earlier. Good luck and I hope you'll have as much fun and success with this as I've had.

The Barlow Case

Clues

1. The millionaire Claude Barlow was found floating in the pool of his Hillsborough estate at 9:00 A.M. on August 11th by the maid.
2. Anderson was usually a quiet man, but when he drank he became loud and belligerent.
3. Mrs. Barlow often went to dine and dance at the exclusive Penguin Club.
4. A neighbor who was walking his dog on the night of the 10th said he saw a red car turn out of Barlow's driveway at 11:15.
5. A spokesman for the First Bank and Trust of San Francisco said Peters had come in on the morning of the 11th with a briefcase, used his safety deposit box and left.
6. According to the police report he had drowned.
7. On the morning of August 10th Barlow had hired an auditor from Smith, Goldman & Smith, a private accounting firm.
8. Barlow, 62, was a ruthless businessman and a heartless employer.
9. According to the police, Barlow had been dead for 9 hours when his body was found.
10. Mrs. Barlow, 35, said she had come home from the club about 11:00 P.M. and gone straight to bed because she had had a headache.
11. The Barlow's maid said that after she told Mrs. Barlow about finding the body, Mrs. Barlow had called the police and then made another phone call.
12. Police were unable to find Peters after the murder.
13. Mrs. Barlow said that she thought that she had heard an argument between her husband and Anderson by the pool that night, but she wasn't sure because she was half-asleep.
14. Anderson had often been seen in the company of Peters at the Greenwood racetrack.
15. His head had been hit with a cylindrical object; there were splinters of glass found in his hair.

16. At 11:30 on the night of the murder Anderson pulled into Roy's All-Nite service station and used the restroom. Roy said he thought Anderson had been in a fight.
17. Peters was a member of the Penguin Club and was there from 7:00 to 12:30 on the night of the murder.
18. There was a large life insurance policy on Barlow.
19. Mrs. Peters said her husband had received a phone call about 9:15 A.M. on the 11th and then had left home in a hurry.
20. A police expert concluded that the head wound was not fatal, but that he probably had remained unconscious until he drowned.
21. According to Miss Brooks, Barlow's secretary, at 2:30 that afternoon there had been a loud and angry argument between Barlow and Peters with Peters finally storming out of the office.
22. Ralph Anderson, 53, the accountant for Barlow Enterprises, was resentful at having received only a small raise in the last 10 years.
23. There were signs of a struggle on the deck near the pool. A glasstop patio table had been overturned and smashed.
24. Anderson was arrested in San Diego at 5:30 P.M. on August 11th with $150,000 is a suitcase. He was driving a red 1974 Ford.
25. A police expert reported that from the condition of his clothes it was obvious that he had been dragged across the poolside concrete.
26. According to the bartender at the Flamingo Lounge, Anderson had been drinking from 7:30 to 10:30 P.M. on the night of the murder. The bartender overheard Anderson talking to Barlow on the phone at around 10:15.
27. Mrs. Barlow told the police that Anderson had threatened to kill her husband in the past.
28. The auditor from Smith, Goldman & Smith discovered $500,000 missing from the books of Barlow Enterprises.
29. There was a broken whiskey bottle with Anderson's fingerprints on it found near the smashed table.
30. Frank Peters, 42, Barlow's partner, was often seen betting heavily at the Greenwood racetrack.

Solution

Claude Barlow was killed by his wife. Anderson, after some heavy drinking, had gone to Barlow's that night to talk about the money he had embezzled from Barlow Enterprises, and possibly to plead for leniency. An argument and fight ensued. Mrs. Barlow was not half-asleep as she had told the police. She had heard everything. After Anderson hit Barlow on the head with the whiskey bottle and fled, Mrs. Barlow investigated and found her husband lying unconscious near the pool. After some deliberation, she decided it was the perfect opportunity to kill him and blame it on Anderson. So she dragged her husband into the pool. She, of course, couldn't immediately call the police because the time of death would have been too suspicious. Anderson had been gone too long. (As one student pointed out to me, if Mrs. Barlow hadn't waited so long to kill her husband–between thirty and forty-five minutes–she would have gotten away with it.) She went to bed and waited for the maid to discover the body the next day.

Peters and Anderson had both been embezzling Barlow Enterprises–Peters because of his heavy betting debts and Anderson out of resentment and greed. Barlow suspected the embezzling and hired a private auditor. The reason for the argument between Barlow and Peters is unclear. Mrs. Barlow and Peters had an intimate relationship. Barlow could have suspected this and confronted Peters with it. Maybe he accused Peters of embezzling, which Peters, of course, would deny. (I deliberately left some ambiguity in the story because I wanted the students to decide what was possible.) Mrs. Barlow called Peters to tell him her husband had been killed and, if she knew about the embezzling, to warn him. Peters took his share of the embezzled $500,000 and disappeared because he know he would now have to leave in order to escape prosecution. Mrs. Barlow may have hoped for a rendezvous with Peters after she received the insurance money. Anderson knew he hadn't killed Barlow and he tried to escape to Mexico with his share of the loot.

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Two Reading or Listening Exercises

S. Kathleen Kitao

In developing *An American Sampler* (Kitao, 1983), a reading textbook for college students, my co-authors and I wanted to use some exercises that went beyond the traditional true/false, short answer, or multiple-choice questions. I think that two of the types of exercises that we have used are not well-known and would also be useful to other teachers. These exercises are fairly easy to make and can be used in a variety of ways, depending on the level and needs of the students and the goals that you have for a particular class.

Chart Exercise

A chart exercise presents a chart which the students fill in with information from a reading or listening passage. You can fill in some of the information to help orient the students. Chart exercises are intended to give students practice in looking for or listening for specific information. They also help students understand the passage as a whole and the relationships among facts or ideas in the passage. Charts can be used to help students reconstruct and analyze the information given them.

Passages with parallel series of information are appropriate for chart exercises. The following is an example of a chart exercise from *An American Sampler* (58). It is from a reading called "The Bennetts," about an American family's daily schedule. The students fill in what the children are doing at various times of the day. They can do so either while reading or listening to the passage or after they have read or listened to it two or three times. After the students have filled in the chart, they can get together in groups or pairs to compare their answers. You can also draw a chart on the blackboard and ask students who have correct answers to fill it in. After the chart is finished, students can ask each other questions and answer them using the information from the chart. (What time does Tyler go to school? What does Tyler do while Katelyn is taking a nap? Etc.)

Ms. Kitao graduated from the Univ. of Kansas in 1979 and came to Japan in 1980. She teaches oral English and English composition at Doshisha Women's College in Kyoto.

Chart Exercise

Use the information in the reading to complete the following chart.

The Bennett Children's Daily Schedule

Time	Tyler	Katelyn
7:30		
8:30		
10:30		
11:30		
1:30		
5:00		
6:00		
8:00		
Bed-time		

Visualization Exercise

Another type of exercise that we use is what we call a visualization exercise. It is sometimes difficult to know whether students understand descriptions or descriptive vocabulary. In fact, it is sometimes difficult for the students themselves to know whether they really understand a description. One solution to these problems is to ask the students to draw a picture of what is being described in a reading or listening passage. After they have done so, they can compare their drawings in groups and either correct each others' drawings or come up with a drawing that the group agrees is correct, possibly after consulting the reading or listening to the description again. You can also have some students reproduce their drawings on the board or on transparencies for the overhead projector. In this way you can either confirm or correct your students' visualization of what is being described.

A variation of this is to draw the thing that is being described yourself, either on the blackboard or on a handout for individual students, and have the students label the parts of it. This may also reinforce new vocabulary.

As you can see, either of these exercises can be used in a variety of ways. If you think about your classes, you might be able to think of other variations to use.

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The author's original paper, "Developing Exercises for Reading Materials," first appeared in The Proceedings of the College English Teachers Association (of Korea) for the Second International Conference, Supplement to *English Teaching,* No. 24, 1982, pp. 153-167. The project that this paper was based on was partially funded by Japan Association of Language Teachers research grants in 1980 and 1981.

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Book Reviews

TEACHING AND LEARNING LANGUAGES. Earl W. Stevick. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1982, pp. 215.

Teaching and Learning Languages is a book that teaches teachers. It is a teacher-centered book in that it is more concerned with helping teachers grow in keeping with their own values and needs, than in simply transferring information or telling teachers how to teach. To this end, the information presented in its three parts has been chosen to include only what is useful for teachers as they embark on their own search into the murky and mostly uncharted area of how people learn and therefore, how we should teach another language.

Part one is concerned with learning. It examines the role of interpersonal relationships in the classroom and explores how we become able to use a second language. Concepts such as performance and competence, learning and acquiring, and short-term, long-term, and permanent memory are explained relative to adult language learning within a classroom context.

The second part looks at how we teach. It describes various techniques and materials for teaching the syntax, sound system, and lexicon, and for helping learners speak and understand the language. The techniques, both old and new, are born of a variety of approaches. They are presented with options for use and discussed relative to the ideas talked about in part one.

Part three is concerned with what we teach. Grammar and phonology are discussed with an eye to including those parts of linguistic description that have consistently proven to be useful ways for language teachers to view language.

The book was intended for beginning teachers, but is thought by the author and his publisher to be of interest to more experienced teachers, too. With this in mind, its strengths are that it is a book of philosophical depth and that it is written in an uncomplicated, nontechnical, and engaging style. The only section I found confusing was the expanded analogy between memory and a worktable, perhaps because of its abstract quality in comparison to the rest of the book. The book is scrupulously nonprescriptive in approach, but provides the raw material from which a teacher can develop a style of teaching reflective of his own beliefs, personality, and teaching situation. Sensitivity is shown to the variety of circumstances and constraints teachers face regarding class size, materials allowed, and professional autonomy given. Most techniques are presented with options for use according to personal preference and situation.

Perhaps the most significant part of the book for teachers in regard to the issues raised is chapter one, "Between the people in the classroom." With brevity out of line with their importance, such questions are addressed as. What effect do these have on the quality of learning and teaching? and What are the key questions a teacher can ask himself in order to shed some light on the nature of classroom relationships? Questions are suggested to provide an entry into understanding the interactions that happen, but such questions as, "How would you balance power against creativity, or creativity against infallibility?" are so large as to be almost unanswerable.

There were two expectations I had for this book. First, I had hoped to find a book suitable for supplementing a short-term teacher training course for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. This it is not. It contains much of the same material that a well-conceived introduction to TESOL course would include. In this sense, the book is self-contained and probably would be most useful to a teacher who is working on his teaching by himself. It is the sort of book for a teacher to take with him to a post in a remote village where classroom materials are limited or nonexistent, and where it is up to the teacher to create a classroom environment in which students can, in Stevick's words, "throw intellect and imagination into the lesson, and not just go through the motions with their voices and their pencils."

My second expectation for the book grew out of having read two of Stevick's previous books, *Memory, Meaning and Method* and *Teaching Languages: A Way and Ways.* Both of these books have taught and inspired me. I have returned to them again and again and each time been renewed. Although *Teaching And Learning Languages* is an informative book, it is not inspiring in the way of the previous two. Caleb Gattegno once said during a seminar at Educational Solutions in New York (August 1981) that we should give our students no less than what we ourselves are working with at the moment. This means that teachers need not assume that the questions they are interested in and exploring at the moment are too deep and complicated for their students. On the contrary, the asking of genuine questions lends a truth to the teaching-learning relationship that allows a higher quality of learning to take place than that which happens when the interaction is carefully plotted and the teacher has already explored and resolved the issues at hand. The sense of sharing in the author's search that made reading the earlier two books so exciting is missing in this one.

Nevertheless, in his new book Earl Stevick shows himself to be a teacher with a wealth of valuable experience to share. His approach is one that grants teachers the ability to sort through the complexities of their job and make sensible choices about how to teach. This in itself is rare and makes the book worth reading.

Annie Brooks

Ms. Brooks has a B.A. in English from the Univ. of Nebraska and an M.A. in TESL from the School for International Training. She has taught in Japan, and taught and worked as a teacher trainer in China and the U.S.

PLAY GAMES WITH ENGLISH: BOOK 1 & BOOK 2. Colin Granger. Cover design and illustrations by John Plumb. London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd. *Book 1*, 1980, pp. 74; *Book 2*, 1981, pp. 73.

Games are an interesting and rewarding way to stimulate students' interest and aid their learning. The fun that is had while playing a game or solving a puzzle removes the drudgery and a lot of the self-consciousness that often accompanies second-language learning. A well-designed game can also focus on a language point or function in a clear and understandable way.

Play Games With English: Book 1 is for beginner/elementary students; *Book 2* is for pre-intermediate/intermediate students. The books are not board games or competitions as such, but rather puzzles to be solved and tasks to be performed. The games have names like: Memory 1, Observations 5, Categories 3, Connections 2, and Spot the Difference. Each page of the books has a different game on it. The solutions to each game appear at the back of the book, and the last two pages are an index of the language points and structures covered by each of the games. There are a large variety of tasks, each of them illustrated with easy-to-understand instructions. Each game has one or more language points or structures as its focus. The authors have aided understanding of the written instructions for the books and for each of the games by the use of pictures depicting the action to be done: writing sentences, checking a box, looking closely at a picture, and so on. The excellent and attractive illustrations add to the appeal of the books and help the students to put the structure being studied into a meaningful context. The pictures also aid the students when the focus of the game is vocabulary building.

Because the instructions are quite easy to follow, the games graded, and the solutions appear at the back of the book, students can use these books independently. This makes them excellent books for students to use for home study or to review particular problems that they might be having. I have also found them to be very good for students to use when working together in pairs or small groups.

Many of the games lend themselves to adaptation and extension and I have had a lot of success basing an entire lesson plan around some of the games. I have used them as supplements to the main part of my course in intensive programs, as the basic text for a weekly conversation class, and as review material for troublesome grammar points with more advanced students.

An example of the possibilities for expansion that I have used is for the game on page 9 of *Book 2*. The grammar point is irregular verbs. A series of pictures that tell a story needs to be put in order and the verbs, which are given at the bottom of the page, put into their past form. The students are required to do three things: put the events of the story in order, choose the correct verb for each picture, and put each verb (most of which are irregular) into its past form. After the students have worked on these tasks for a while, I ask individuals to read the sentences. Sometimes there will be disagreements as to the correct order of the sentences and that often results in a lot of discussion. The class usually manages to resolve the matter without much intervention on my part. Next I ask individuals to write the sentences on the blackboard. This gives everyone a chance to have a final corrected version and sets the stage for the next activity.

The result of completing the puzzle is ten simple sentences that tell the story. Depending on what I feel the class is capable of, I can have them supply appropriate adverbs and/or combine the sentences in various ways. At this point the possible combinations are quite numerous and the students, working together in pairs, can make their own additions to the story.

Not all of the games lend themselves to so much expansion, but many of them do. Because it is not something that is part of the text, each teacher can add, substract, and adapt as s/he sees the need or the opportunity according to the capabilities and needs of her/his class.

If I can make any complaint, and it is a very personal one, it is that some of the vocabulary words are very British, and are not the ones that I use in my particular variety of English, that which is spoken West of the Rockies. My students seem to think it is amusing that I take such pains to explain that "I" say it this way, and "they" say it that way.

Most teachers should find *Play Games With English* a useful and welcome addition to their teaching libraries. I like to have class sets on hand so that I can bring them out whenever I need a short time-filler, or whenever I need to review a grammar point. My students seem to like using them so I can usually count on very active participation. As the authors exhort in the instructions, "Have Fun!"

Derald Nielson

Derald Nielson holds a B.S. in Business Administration from Southern Utah State College and is a candidate for the M.A.T. (TESOL) degree from The School for International Training. He has taught English in Japan for eight years and is currently an instructor at The Language Institute of Japan.

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Announcements

INDIVIDUAL LANGUAGE TEACHING THROUGH MICROCOMPUTER-ASSISTED INSTRUCTION. The American Language Academy CAI Seminars. Two-day workshops will be held: Washington, D.C., Nov. 18-19, 1982; Boston, MA, Jan. 13-14, 1983; Colorado Springs, CO, Jan. 27-28, 1983; Philadelphia, PA, Feb. 17-18, 1983; Cleveland, OH, Mar. 3-4, 1983; Tampa, FL, Apr. 21-22, 1983. Intensive five-day seminars will be held: Tampa, FL, Nov. 9-13, 1982; and Boston, MA, Aug. 9-13, 1983. Both the workshops and seminars will provide the theoretical background and hands-on experience necessary to enable participants to make practical use of microcomputer-assisted language instruction. For more detailed information, please write or call for a brochure: The American Language Academy, Suite 200, 11426 Rockville Pike, Rockville, Maryland 20852, U.S.A. or phone (301) 984-3400.

RELC 18th REGIONAL SEMINAR. New Trends in Language Syllabus Design. April 18-22, 1983; Singapore. The objectives of the seminar are: a) to review recent developments in the theory of language syllabus design; b) to survey current practices in the design and implementation of language syllabuses in Southeast Asia and elsewhere; c) to explore ways in which information on learner needs and educational resources may be incorporated into language syllabus design; d) to consider how the language syllabus relates to the rest of the educational curriculum; and d) to discuss the role of the language syllabus in the evaluation of language program effectiveness. Further information and invitations to participate in the seminar can be obtained from the following address: Director (Attention: Chairman, Seminar Planning Committee), SEAMEO Regional Language Centre, RELC Building, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 1025, Republic of Singapore.

NINTH ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF SIETAR. May 10-15, 1983. Hosted by *Intercultura* at the Intercultural Centre, San Gimignano, Italy. The Society for Intercultural Education Training and Research announces its call for papers. The theme of the conference is Intercultural Perspectives in Today's World. All conference proposals should be submitted preferably in English or alternatively in French, German, or Italian. For more information contact: SIETAR, congress office, c/o Prof. Dr. Klaus Zapotoczky, Soziologisches Institut, Universität Linz, A-4040 Linz-Anhof, Austria. Phone: (0732) 232-381, ext. 567. Telex: 22323.

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS. June 1-July 15, 1983. Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center. Seminar for educators on the varieties and functions of English when it is used by people of different nations as a means of communication. The topics will include: (a) Varieties of English as an International Language and the differences between EIL and other functions of English; (b) Teacher training and material development for EIL; (c) The use of native and non-native literature for EIL; (d) Cultural factors influencing communication patterns; and (e) Needed research. The staff of the seminar will consist of an international team of instructors with particular interest and experience in cross-cultural interaction. The seminar is designed for participants who are native or non-native speakers of English who train classroom teachers, write materials, or develop language policy. Application deadline is January 15, 1983. For more information and an application form, write to: The Director, Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, U.S.A.

TESOL SUMMER INSTITUTE 1983. July 4–August 12, 1983; Toronto. Jointly hosted by the Department of Linguistics, University of Toronto, and the Modern Language Centre, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. The theme will be "English in bilingual and multicultural societies." A wide variety of courses and mini-courses, a Forum Lecture series, and a number of related activities will be offered. The annual summer meeting of TESOL will be held during the Institute, July 21–23, 1983. Accommodation for participants will be available on the campus of the University of Toronto. A handbook containing details on all matters relevant to the Institute will be available in January, 1983. Requests and inquiries should be addressed to: TESOL Summer Institute, School of Continuing Studies, 158 St. George Street, Toronto, Ontario M5S 2V8, Canada.

LEXeter '83. INTERNATIONAL LEXICOGRAPHY CONFERENCE AT EXETER. September 9–12, 1983. International conference on all aspects of lexicography to take place at the University of Exeter. Preliminary registrations and offers of papers are still being accepted. There will be some keynote lectures on the major general issues in dictionary-making, but the emphasis will be on more specialized topics, discussed in section meetings, on the subjects of: (a) The Historical Dictionary; (b) The Bilingual Dictionary; (c) The Learner's Dictionary; (d) Terminology Standardization; and (e) Computer-Aided Lexicography. For more information, write to: Dr. R.R.K. Hartmann, The Language Centre, University of Exeter, Exeter EX4 4QH, Devon, United Kingdom.

Seminar in ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE: Training for Effective Communication in International Business. September 11–17, 1983; Registration deadline: August 1, 1983. Odawara, Japan. The Culture Learning Institute of the East-West Center, Honolulu, Hawaii, and the Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) are jointly offering a special seminar at LIOJ for native and non-native speakers of English who are involved in international business. In particular, it is designed for those who: (a) manage or train foreigners within their company; (b) negotiate for their company with foreigners; and (c) sell to or buy from foreign buyers/suppliers.

The objectives of the seminar are:

(1) to identify and interpret problems which arise when using EIL in business situations;

(2) to clarify the role of ethics in international communication; and

(3) to devise effective communication strategies for the international businessman.

To receive a brochure with complete information, write to Director, Culture Learning Institute, East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, Hawaii 96848, U.S.A. Phone: (808) 944-7608. Cable: EASWESCEN Honolulu, Hawaii. Telex: 7430119; or write to Director, LIOJ, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara 250, Japan. Phone: (0465) 23-1677.

CONFERENCE ON THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF TRANSLATORS AND INTERPRETERS. October 14-15, 1983; Calexico, California. Call for papers. Sponsored by the Spanish section of San Diego State University-Imperial Valley Campus. Papers are invited on any aspect of pedagogical theory, methodology, and techniques. Topics for workshops, demonstrations, and panel discussions are also solicited. Please submit an abstract or outline as soon as possible to: Dr. Jose Varela-Ibarra, San Diego State University, Imperial Valley Campus, 720 Heber Avenue, Calexico, California 92231, U.S.A.

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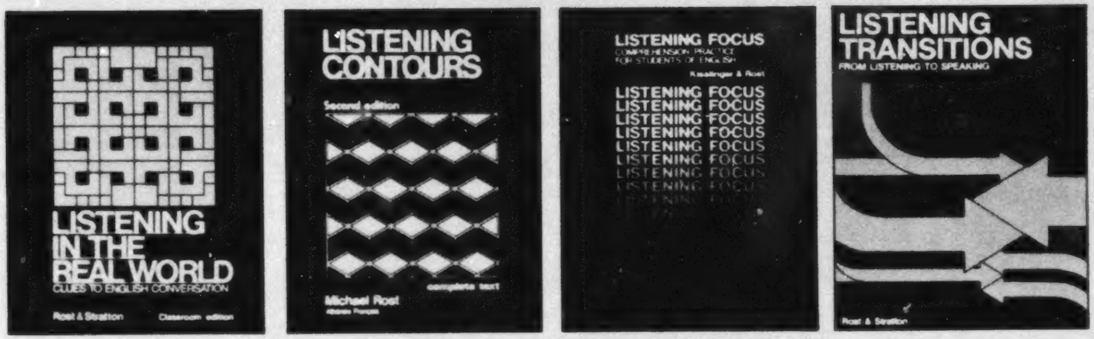
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The Language Institute of Japan (LIOJ) is a nonprofit language school located in Odawara, specializing in intensive, month-long residential English programs for Japanese businessmen and professionals. In addition, the school offers classes to the citizens of the Odawara area in English and occasionally Spanish and French. Annually, the school also offers a week-long summer workshop for Japanese teachers of English. All of the programs at LIOJ are designed to help promote better cross-cultural communication and to encourage international understanding. Inquiries concerning LIOJ should be directed to: The Language Institute of Japan, 4-14-1 Shiroyama, Odawara, Kanagawa 250, Japan.

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